NONPROFESSIONAL INVOLVEMENT IN HELPING SERVICES IN PALMERSTON NORTH

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A B S T R A C T

Helping as it has been influenced by the development of a welfare state philosophy is examined. A review is made of the societal changes that have and are continuing to have a potent influence on the established networks of support, care and help. The results of these societal changes and consequent network changes are seen in the rapid increase in demands for professional helping services. These rapidly increased demands have been matched by a rapid increase in personnel in helping services. The contribution of the nonprofessional has been somewhat curtailed as a result of the emphasis on the growth of professional helpers. The literature from overseas records evidence of the re-emergence of the nonprofessional helper as a powerful contributor to meeting the needs of the community. In this respect the concept of 'community care' is becoming a reality. The literature reviewed points to the contribution the nonprofessional is and can be making and overwhelmingly supports the positive nature of this contribution.

This study examined what happened in Palmerston North in terms of the nonprofessional contribution to helping services. All professional helpers (psychiatrists, psychologists, counsellors and social workers) in the city, were interviewed and a 20% sample of nonprofessional helpers drawn from selected helping agencies were interviewed. 75 professional helpers and 76 nonprofessional helpers were interviewed personally, two separate questionnaires being used.

The results show that helpers were predominantly aged 31 to 60 (75%) and less than 2% were under 22. There were equal numbers of males and females. 81.4% of professional helpers worked in government or quasi-government services, while only 3.9% of nonprofessionals linked up with such services to make their contributions. Over half of the professional helpers are social workers and only 40% of all professional helpers have a professional qualification.

Both professional and nonprofessional helpers feel overwhelmingly that the nonprofessional has a contribution to make. However 56.6% of nonprofessionals had never been asked for help by a professional. Those who had been asked, were most frequently asked to provide 'befriending/ support'. This is what most nonprofessionals wanted to be asked to do and over half of the professionals felt this was the best contribution the nonprofessional could make.

Almost 100% of nonprofessionals felt capable of offering 'material' help or 'befriending/support', while 77% felt capable of offering 'advice and guidance' and 51% 'counselling'.

42.6% of professionals had requested nonprofessional assistance in the past week, while 7.9% of nonprofessionals had received such a request in the same period.

Overall, nonprofessionals felt that professionals understood them, but almost 20% felt they did not receive enough encouragement or support. The expectations each group had of the other were investigated and it was found that overall, both groups had similar expectations.

The advantages and disadvantages each group had found of working with the other were explored. The results give a valuable insight into the positive and negative experiences helpers in each group have had of working with the other group.

Three implications are drawn from the study, firstly concerning the utilization of resources, secondly, relationship factors and thirdly, differentiation of skills.

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I wish to express very grateful thanks to the 151 helpers in Palmerston North who were the respondents for the study. Without their help and co-operation the study would have been impossible. It is my hope that the results of the study will provide further stimulation for professional and nonprofessional helpers to work together and to work in new and innovative ways.

My thanks are also extended to the helping agencies of Palmerston North who allowed me to make contact with individual helpers.

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INTRODUCTION

Three influences were at work in determining this study.

Gerald Caplan, with his views of preventive and community psychiatry, began to attract my attention in 1966. His emphasis on the involvement of the community in its own areas of deviance seemed appropriate and challenging. The employment of greater numbers of professional helpers was he suggested, a collusion with the community, allowing it to avoid the responsibility that was rightly its. Much of the current emphasis on citizen participation in the community takes as its starting point, the impetus of Caplan. His concern for a preventive approach to deviance, and in particular mental health, again struck a response in me. The ambulance at the bottom of the cliff seems to hold little real prospect of doing anything, except alleviating the problems once they have arisen.

Robert Carkhuff with his work in the field of helping and social action has also been a potent influence. Perhaps the most significant aspect of Carkhuff's work, is his emphasis on functionality. Based on his research he states, "In the realm of human services, indigenous lay personnel can be selected and trained to do everything that credentialed professionals can do and more."(1969) In looking for the functional/effective helper, he says he is most likely to find him or her amongst the nonprofessional ranks - the involved and concerned citizen, the volunteer, who, appropriately trained, is effective. His research, his theorising, and his application of both of these in programmes of social action highlight the community resources that are available to assist in developing the community, and yet which lie, in the main dormant.

It seemed natural that the work of Caplan and Carkhuff should lead into an analysis of our New Zealand society and in particular to the area of helping. This then became the third influence. Such an analysis of deviance or maladjustment in New Zealand society leads to the conclusion that a very substantial proportion of the society are functioning in a manner which could be described as "sick". The degree of sickness obviously varies. The evidence of such sickness is seen in alcoholism

and drug abuse, admissions to psychiatric hospitals, crime rates, the incidence of illegitimacy, marital breakdown, suicidal behaviour, tranqualisers consumed, and children committed to the care or supervision of the Social Welfare Department. There is of course other evidence, which cannot be monitored so effectively, e.g. motor-accidents, absenteeism from work, and industrial strife.

The response to such deviance and maladjustment has been a dramatic increase in the numbers of people employed to "care" for others. Such carers continually complain when they meet that they work with excessive caseloads, for which they receive inadequate training and as a consequence become frustrated at the poor service they are able to offer to clients.

It was at this point that the greater use of community resources seemed particularly relevant. The number of organisations in the community, functioning in a voluntary helping capacity was evidence of such resources being available. The utilisation of such resources by professional helpers seemed however, to be largely ignored.

These three influences, then, lay behind the decision to attempt a study of what happened, and if possible, why it happened, in Palmerston North in the area of nonprofessional involvement in helping services.

CHAPTER I

HELPING AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF A WELFARE STATE PHILOSOPHY

(A) INTRODUCTION:

This chapter seeks to look briefly at helping in its historical perspective, giving special attention to the influence of the welfare state philosophy which has markedly influenced the forms of helping in the community.

Central to the welfare state philosophy has been the involvement of the state in the helping process. This has lead to a cadre of workers developing, whose primary commitment is to helping. These workers, paid functionaries, took over their task from volunteers. They have, and are continuing to press for, professional status. In response to this movement, and for other reasons there has been evidence of a re-emergence of the nonprofessional or volunteer partly through organisations set up in the community to help others and partly through 'self-help' organisations. A growing body of literature is now available regarding the positive contribution of the nonprofessional.

(B) SOME HISTORICAL CONSIDERATIONS:

Keith-Lucas (1973) in attempting a history of helping has stated that the ideas that have guided man's relationships to those in trouble are largely theological. "Until the end of the Middle Ages the church was the primary "helping agency" and even where provision for the poor or the sick, for instance, became a governmental function the culture demanded that it act on, for the most part, Christian principles," says Keith-Lucas.

The Encyclopaedia Britanica (1970), in discussing philanthropy, suggests that a much broader base than Christianity needs to be considered, although that broader base is largely theological. In ancient Greece and Rome there are many accounts of helping, motivated it would seem, by the belief that vagrants and beggars were under the patronage of the gods. "All the great teachers and philosophers who have influenced the history of the East, have stressed that the well to do, had duties towards the unfortunates." Islam provides for obligatory and voluntary help to be given to those in need. Jewish ethical thought recognised from the

beginning that the poor had rights and the rich had duties. The charity overseer was part of the recognised institutional setting of every community. The International Encyclopedia of Social Science (1968) on the same subject of philanthropy refers to Egypt where the teaching was that there were rewards in heaven for those who helped, and this was many centuries before Christianity. The Encyclopedia also makes reference to China, citing the teachings of Confucius and Mencius and their advocating benevolence. Helping would appear to be as old as mankind himself.

Keith-Lucas (1973) would respond to the above statements by suggesting that "part of the difficulty of discussing the history of helping, is that until this century it has been confused with another problem, that of dealing with the poor - a problem that has broad political, theological, and social aspects and has influenced man's thinking about how he should help." Preoccupation with the poor has had, as we shall see, a major influence on the welfare state philosophy, and therefore on helping.

Perhaps the coming together of these two positions is reflected in a statement by Keith-Lucas (1973) in which he talks about the motivations for helping and links these with different cultural influences. He says, "by the time that Christianity became the West's official religion it could be said that here were four basic motives for helping others that had to some extent been amalgamated. These four principles can be very broadly correlated with the ideas of four different cultures. The Greek attitude to helping was largely what might be called, for lack of a simple English word, eudaemonistic. The man who helped others furthered the development of his own soul. Thus helping could be extended to one's equals, but man could continue to be insensitive to the plight of whole segments of society. The Romans, judging from the form in which material help was given and as might be expected from the nature of their law, felt deeply about the responsibility of a man for his dependents and particularly for those who gave him service in return. In terms of purely material aid estimates vary in assigning from one third to three quarters of the Roman population to a dependant status. The great Jewish contribution was the concept of justice. Kindness and mercy, giving to the poor, are associated throughout the Old Testament with the just disposition of disputes and honest principles of commerce as aspects of man's relationship towards those less fortunate than himself. For every mention, for instance, in the Old Testament to "kindness" or "mercy"

there are two to justice and even in Micah's summing up of God's requirements justice is given the first place. To this the Christian has added, or developed, the ethic of love to one's fellows as a response to the love of God for man." Keith-Lucas suggests these four basic impulses still exist today.

Grubb (1917) writing in the Encyclopedia of Religion and Ethics says, "Active participation in philanthropy has through the ages been much more characteristic of Christian or Western, than the Pagan or Eastern societies, and those belonging to Protestant rather than Roman Catholic or Orthodox religions." This statement while being controversial gains credance as the history of the church's involvement in helping is chronicled. It certainly is a statement that draws much support from the literature of social work and human relations. This is not to suggest that the development of helping within the church has been smooth and untroubled. The medieval church reflected a strong judgementalism in its attitude to those in need of help. Worse was to come in the Middle Ages, when the major perversion of the helping impulse was the growth of the idea that the purpose of giving was to ensure salvation for the soul of the giver. Friedlander (1968) says, "In medieval England, care of the poor was an activity of the church. To give alms to the destitute, blind and lame was a religious duty and a means of salvation from the threat of divine punishment after death. Since the main motive for almsgiving was the salvation of the soul of the donor, he usually had little concern for the human being who received his charity. Beginning in the fourteenth century, however, some distinction was made between two classes of the poor: the able-bodied poor who could earn their living, and the impotent poor who were unable to work - the blind, the lame, the aged, the sick, young children, and pregnant women. For the care of the poor the church devoted from one-fourth to one-third of the tithes and offerings collected from its parishoners."

Younghusband (1964) elaborates further the motivation for helping by saying, "Historically, social work, like much other voluntary effort on behalf of one's neighbour, sprang from the religious motive. It had two parts, the giving of alms and the giving of service. The giving of alms was an obligation on the faithful; the emphasis being primarily on the salvation of the soul of the giver rather than in the good done to the recipient. In mediaeval Christianity a magnificent though abortive attempt was made to provide for all social needs by this voluntary

almsgiving and it was only when, for various reasons, it failed, that the State took over. In some Mohammedan countries at the present day, reliance on providing for the relief of need by the alms of the faithful still continues. The obligation to give personal service - to feed the hungry, to heal the sick - was due perhaps to a more profound religious motive. In both Christianity and Judiasm there is a call to comfort the weak hearted, to raise up them that fall, to loose those whom Satan has bound: a call which has contributed most powerfully to our modern desire to rehabilitate the offender and the disabled, to provide kindly care for the old and the ailing and to understand and to help rather than to condemn the social misfit.

This concern for those who fall by the wayside has never had an easy passage, partly because it runs full into the problem of human motivation and to moral judgements about this. For centuries we divided the poor and the unfortunate into two groups. The first, those who had fallen into calamities which they could not help: the sick, the disabled, the widows, the orphans, the thrifty old - that is to say broadly speaking, the deserving. The second group included offenders against the law, unmarried mothers, vagrants, the unemployed, the old without savings - broadly speaking the undeserving. The first group had suffered from what insurance companies call an Act of God. The second suffered from a defective moral will. The first group was deserving of pity and could with impunity receive charity and personal service. The second group was much more dangerous because kindly treatment might increase its numbers and undermine independence. Therefore any relief of its necessities must be on a basis of deterrence, accompanied by exhortations to greater exercise of will power and the reform of evil and thriftless ways. Today a more profound understanding of the social causes in individual failure, as well as of the strange workings of the human heart, have tended to blur the sharp distinction between the sheep and the goats - to the scandal of some of the sheep and not always to the edification of all of the goats." That "profound understanding" was not present in the sixteenth century which Rimlinger (1971) says saw an alarming increase in the number of beggars and vagrants in England, as well as on the Continent and this led to the problem being recognised as one belonging to the community rather than just to the churches. The early statutory provisions in the

United Kingdom acknowledged a distinction between the "genuine" unemployed and the "idle rogue or vagabond" as Eyden (1965) puts it. Eyden says, "The first statutory provision in the United Kingdom for the support of the poor was the Act Concerning Punishment of Beggars and Vagabonds 1531, which gave power to grant licences to beg to "all aged poor and impotent persons". In 1536 parishes were made responsible for their own destitute, and in 1572 a compulsory poor rate was introduced. In 1576 Justices of the Peace were authorised to put genuinely unemployed to work on materials supplied by the parish, houses of correction were established for the "idle rogue or vagabond", and relatives were legally defined who could be made to support destitute persons if they were able. The Act for the Relief of the Poor 1601 re-enacted the above with some amendments and firmly established a nationwide system of relief based on the parish. This remained the basis for statutory provision in the United Kingdom until the National Assistance Act 1948."

Bruce (1961) in discussing this same period, highlights in particular the growth of community responsibility. "This community responsibility was first given statutory expression under Queen Elizabeth I and was then based on the parish. The story of the poor law from the sixteenth century until its abolition shows a widening area of responsibility from parish 1531, through the Union (1834) to the Local Authority (1930) and eventually, under the Unemployment Assistance Board of 1948, to the nation as a whole." Bruce goes on to say that, "This widening of the area of responsibility was matched by a similar widening of the range of services provided from simple "out-relief" and more complex issues of "setting the poor on work" to National Assistance and Full Employment; from the apprenticing of poor children to the provision of a State system of education; from the care of the sick poor to the environmental health services of the nineteenth century and the National Health Service of today." Sobey (1970) says that welfare began with the poor, but developed into allied fields of education and health.

While there was evidence of increasing state involvement in the welfare needs of the community (not just poverty) the help that was offered was essentially offered through the church and in particular, the priest on behalf of the church, local officials empowered by statutory authority and through the efforts of voluntary organisations. The coming of the professional helpers was still some way off.

Numerous attempts have been made to explore the growth of community responsibility for helping. Rescher (1972), Woodroofe (1962) Simey (1960), Briggs (1965), Bremner (1965), all refer to societal changes, particularly in the field of economics, pointing out that vast social changes that began to occur with the industrial revolution. Futurists such as Tofler (1970) say that these social changes continue to be with us now and have increased. Their vastness is creating a state which he calls "future shock". This is not the place to discuss the industrial revolution; it is the place however, to note its impact in terms of our subject. Some points of obvious impact include the provision of work for more people, urbanisation and the growth of cities, and the division of labour. The major consideration, in terms of helping however, lies in the fact that the established "networks" of helping began to change. The Encyclopedia Britanica (1970) says, "historically, philanthropy grew out of the obligations of the family or kinship group to care for its members and to offer hospitality to strangers." This network operated very effectively as long as the family and/or kinship group lived together, or in close proximity, when there was time for the individual needs of family members to be met, and when the range of "significant others" was more extensive than it tends to be in, for example, Palmerston North in 1974. The church, and adherence to Christian teaching was a unifying factor in many kinship groups and communities. Hancock (1966) has argued that in relation to New Zealand society we see this network reflected in the well organised closely knit culture of Maori society up to 1750. The tribe, Hapu and the family was the backdrop for all human endeavour. "The tribe was the state and concerned with the welfare of all", Hancock says.

This was the first stage of a four phase development of welfare which Hancock sees reflected in history.

To return to our parental influence in terms of the United Kingdom, this network began to break down with the impact of the industrial revolution. Such a statement is not meant to suggest that benefits did not accrue from the industrial revolution. It may be that what the industrial revolution did, was to expose the problems, many of them underlying in pre-revolution days, which had previously been coped with through the network of the family.

The social problems that were brought into focus more forcibly as a result of the industrial revolution lead to many attempts at social reform. This was the age of Charles Booth, and of the Webbs. It was their work and that of many others, which began to throw light on the social causes of poverty and unemployment.

The knowledge that became available from science also had a major impact. The application of science to industrial processes and agriculture, the science of economics and medical science all helped to break the vicious circle of poverty, disease and early death. Social reformers had as their goals, the abolition of illiteracy preventable disease, sweated labour, slums and overcrowding, unemployment and destitution, and they thought that such reforms would free men to live happy, self-determining lives, which they could not deal with unaided on their own account. This was, to return to Hancock's (1966) typology, the "pioneer phase" of welfare. Still there were no professional social or welfare workers. The work of welfare tended to be carried on in a ad hoc way. Community responsibility was still limited. Hancock sums up the New Zealand scene at this time by saying, "By the 1850's, signs of social changes were evident. Destitute children, unemployment, desertion of wives all led to the creation of voluntary groups whose purpose it was to assist those who suffered in this way. The Churches, of course, were early in the field, and before too long the Provinces, as was then the case in New Zealand began to make provision for dependent children, the mentally ill and the criminal. An interesting facet of this development was the fact that local government in New Zealand whether urban or rural assumed no responsibility for social service development. These local authorities left the provision of social services either to the central government or to voluntary social services.

The early white settlers were well disposed to voluntary activity. They disliked the local government social services because they knew the poor law of England and hated it. The Maori people too had learned initially a dislike for central government activity and were only well disposed towards the Churches." Hancock calls this the 'Pioneer Phase of the Welfare State.' He says "the words Social Work were not in use. Rather it was "charitable work", "philanthropy", "poor relief", that were the dominating terms."

While much "social environmental reform" was being worked for in this period, there were also some beginning attempts to work for and with individual cases of distress. The beginning of a 'personal service ethic' were emerging. Halmos (1965) argues that the individual who cared for the betterment of his fellows began to shift his emphasis from "a reformist, to a therapeutic position". Before this therapeutic position was to have its period of influence however, the state began to become more and more involved in the welfare of its citizens, mainly through legislative means.

It is not relevant here to trace in detail the development of increased community responsibility, as seen through Acts of Parliament. There were many such Acts, each extending further the involvement of the state in the welfare needs of the individual citizen. The early history of social security in New Zealand, does however exemplify the pattern. In 1846 Government made near relatives responsible for the needy. This was extended to more distant relatives in 1877. Local communities became more specifically involved in 1885 when hospitals were made responsible for relief and charitable aid. Since then there has been a gradual shift of responsibility for financial assistance for individuals away from hospital boards. Old age pensions were introduced in 1899, pensions for widows and children in 1911, for miners in 1915, for blind people in 1924 and family allowances in 1926. The separation of charitable aid from hospitals was carried a stage further by the introduction of invalidity and deserted wives pensions in 1936, followed in 1939 by the social security scheme providing health benefits and a full range of cash benefits including emergency benefits. The next stage was the introduction of supplementary assistance in 1951. The development still continues to the present with accident compensation and a compulsory government superannuation scheme being the latest additions. Oram (1969) says, "Social Security has come a long way since the early provision of pensions for special groups, subject to strict qualifications, and with virtually no alternative but to refuse pensions to those who could not meet the prescribed conditions." He suggests this was part of a more "positive and humane" approach.

Hancock (1966) says of state involvement, "The view that the state had a major role to play in New Zealand life sprang from a strong egalitarian pressure, not only in social welfare, but in education and industry as well. It was related to a powerful desire for security. The

early white settlers from the United Kingdom knew a great deal about uncertainty and poverty. From these they escaped. Their aspirations they have effectively communicated to their children, grandchildren and great-grandchildren. When this is linked with the security systems of Maori life, possible permanent New Zealand patterns begin to be discerned."

So the involvement of the state in the welfare needs of the individual citizen. The burst of legislative activity surrounding welfare provisions is frequently equated with the development of the welfare state. Such a statement suggests that the welfare state is an entity that is now firmly established. Briggs (1961) in an informative article entitled "The Welfare State in Historical Perspective", points out that the phrase "welfare state" is of recent origin, being first used to describe Labour Britain after 1945. He also points out that the phrase is very loosely used and this in itself has lead to much confused thinking. The tendency had been to think of the "welfare state" in terms of the abolition of poverty and conquest of unemployment. My orientation has been towards a welfare state philosophy. This philosophy is based on the principle that the state should be organised in such a way as to ensure for the well-being of its citizens. I follow Bruce (1961), in this respect. The expression of that philosophy will be seen in (1) a form of social insurance, as of right, which involves all citizens and involves them in a system of redistribution of income; (2) social assistance based on taxation; (3) services of universal provision, mainly based on taxation, e.g. education and health; and (4) welfare services providing goods and personal services.

We have and are continuing to see the evolution of this philosophy. Rescher (1972), points out that the nineteenth century began with the conception of"the minimal state" concerned with the welfare of the society in the sense of its physical security (law and order, public safety, military security.) In the first half of the twentiety century, "the welfare state" came to concern itself with welfare in a sense that includes economic security and its requisites (health, education, employment, and guaranteed income.) Simey (1960) takes this a stage further by describing "the emergence during the nineteenth century of two types of state interference in the social life of the community, one resulting in the environmental services which sought to improve the individuals physical environment, the other in the establishment of 'personal' services which set out to provide the individual as an individual with the precise form of assistance he needs."

Halmos (1965) develops this theme, when he says, "When community resources have already been devoted to the basic material needs, the welfare legislators are obliged to observe that the individual and his family all too often fail to turn these material improvements to their advantage, the welfare legislators are persuaded to stress the importance of the personal, incalculably human and private elements of the situation."

Hancock (1966) refers to this period of development as the "social security phase," in which the state became very actively involved in welfare needs. Lawrence (1965) says that the many problems of the time demanded broader, stronger and more continuous action, and the state was the only agency with the authority and the potential resources to combat them. The emphasis began in this phase with legislative activity, but moved and is continuing to move to a balance between legislative and personal provisions. It is at this point that we see the emergence of the professional helpers to provide the personal service. There had been paid functionaries of the welfare systems, functioning in administrative capacities, but the needs, as Halmos has suggested, began to be seen in new ways.

Rimlinger (1971) sums this up by saying "For the first time in the history of mankind, enough material goods have been produced to enable entire nations to live in comfort, even in affluence. Until recently, it was the fate of all but a small ruling minority to spend their lives in or near deprivation. This momentous change in human history is the result of the last two hundred years of economic development. It offers unprecedented opportunities for the obliteration of harsh economic and social inequalities and for the self-realization of the common man. It creates new potentialities for the rights of the individual and points to new dimensions of social justice. This situation entails a new reciprocity between members of a society, new relationships between individuals and the state, new forms of social and economic organization. The opportunities that are created by the shift from scarcity to abundance thus have their counterpart in problems of social adjustment to change. Social change destroys old and creates new vested interests in ideas, power, and material things."

If this point needs to be reinforced, it is most adequately done so by Hall (1953), who says, "In the past, problems of poverty, of public health, of long hours and unsatisfactory conditions of work were so pressing that to a large extent social reformers concentrated on them.

The most urgent problems which confront sociologists, social administrators and workers today are such symptoms of a sick society as the increasing number of marriage breakdowns, the spread of juvenile delinquency, and the dissatisfaction and sense of frustration of the worker in spite of improved pay and conditions - that is, problems of psychological maladjustment rather than material need ..... . The shifting of the emphasis in social work from satisfying the material needs of those unable to provide for themselves to the adjustment of personal relationships, and the integration of the maladjusted individual into society, is a challenge to all concerned with the development of the social services, both statutory and voluntary." This argument is further developed in the next section.

Hancock (1966) says that we are now beginning to move into the fourth phase of development, that of social planning. Rescher (1972) says in this respect, "In the affluent technologically sophisticated society of the second half of the twentieth century, the conception of "the managed society" of the "Social engineers" will come into prominence, designed to concern itself with welfare in a greatly expansed sense." This area is not being developed, as it is peripheral to the central theme of the thesis.

What has been attempted above, has been a very brief account of some of the developments that have taken place in the area of helping and which set the scene for our exploration of the development of professional helpers and the re-emergence of the nonprofessional helpers. The most notable development has been industrialization. Zald (1965) sums it up when he says, "Modern society is an industralized society, and the development of contemporary welfare institutions is directly linked to industrialization. First, as the level of industrialization increases, the over-all resources and standards of living increase. Thus, industrialization leads to higher minimum standards of human welfare. Higher minimun standards are reflected through the demands of potential recipients, professional groups, and the general public for greater welfare services. Second, as industrialization increases, many welfare functions that were previously handled by the family become the function of differentiated welfare institutions - "needs" that were previously met by the family, or not at all, become collective responsibilities. Third, as industrialization increases, the degree of societal interdependence and differentiation increases. On the one hand,

welfare policies and programmes become nationwide in scope. On the other hand, effective policies and programmes must be adapted to the many types and categories of dependencies and needs created by the increased complexity of the social system."

(C) THE PROFESSIONALIZATION OF HELPING:

The professionalization of helping has to be viewed against the historical backdrop outlined above. The demise of the family as the primary network of caring and support, lead to the growth of a network of voluntary effort. Reference has already been made to this growth being linked to a shift from a reformist position to a therapeutic position. That is not to suggest that voluntary effort was not aimed at public welfare issues, but certainly its primary focus soon became the casualties of society rather than society itself.

Huws Jones (1967) says of Britain, "It is impossible to name any important social service that does not spring from voluntary effort. In practice this is the way social needs have been recognised and made articulate, this is how social services started; here is the source of initiative and invention in this field. Voluntary workers have been so much a part of the social services, they have been taken for granted. In the classic British social surveys about the turn of the century, there are very few references to voluntary workers, perhaps because most workers were volunteers."

Younghusband (1964) says that "The grandparents of social work in this country (UK) are typified by the Charity Organisation Society and the police court missioners". Younghusband summarizes the work of the two organisations by saying, "The primary emphasis of the C.O.S. for a good many years was on the organisation of charity rather than on casework as such; that is to say on the best methods of correlating the giving of material help from various sources in a situation where material help, coupled with personal recognition, was often desperately needed. The police court missioners, who began their work about seven years after the founding of the C.O.S. started from the other end. Their forerunners were private people who had been willing to come forward in the courts to stand surety for an offender in order to save him from the nineteenth century prison. They did not primarily offer material help but a personal relationship. The police court missioners were firstly evangelists trying

to save men from intemperance in a society where drink was 'the shortest way out of Manchester'. They may have made many mistakes but the whole basis of their work was a personal relationship with the offender designed to help him to become a better person, and therefore a better member of society. They were thus amongst the true ancestors of casework in this country."

Hamilton-Smith (1973) in discussing developments in Australia, points out that voluntary welfare workers were primarily responsible for providing the first minimal welfare services and these were directed towards particular groups of people, e.g. the sick, the destitute, the homeless and the orphans. "By the late 1920's voluntary social welfare activity was concerned not only with providing material relief, but with other aspects of social welfare such as health, recreation and education," she says. Lawrence (1965), also talking of Australia, says that professionalism in the social services began in the large cities, because it was in such cities that the problems were more pronounced. He says that soon the part-time or spare-time attempts at helping were not adequate.

In New Zealand a similar pattern can be observed. The first organisation, which became nationally operative, was the Society for the Protection of Women and Children and now known as the Society for the Protection of Home and Family. Within the space of 15 years, 1893-1908, there were groups in each of the four main centres. Their aim was five-fold, (1) For women and children in need of protection, (2) to assist women who were having difficulties in the home, (3) to secure home aids, (4) to help maintain those in need and (5) to strive and secure legislative reform. The full-time women secretaries of these organisations, were in effect the first social workers employed in New Zealand. Prior to this, social work/helping activities were carried out in an informal way, i.e. without the support of formal organisations, or paid staff. Hancock (1966) observes that the Society for the Protection of Women and Children was in many ways a New Zealand version of the Charity Organisation Society of the United Kingdom.

What is clear from this brief glimpse of developments in the U.K., Australia, and New Zealand is that the professionalisation of helping was given its birth and early impetus by voluntary effort, both on the part of individuals, and also as they became united into organisations.

It will be noted that the discussion to date has been concerned with welfare and social work activities. The focus of this thesis is helping and the study concerned itself with four occupational groups within helping, psychologists, psychiatrists, counsellors and social workers. The psychologists and counsellors however post-date the developments that have been discussed to the present. The early expression of helping, in terms of paid functionaries was through social work. The functionaries were rarely called social workers. More frequently, early titles were "welfare workers", "Samaritan officers" and "boarding out officers". The history relating to psychiatric hospitals - a very long and mostly uncomfortable history - indicates that this service was not seen as 'helping'for many years. Hill (1969), like many others, has recorded the development of psychiatric services, and in particular, the humanisation of them. He suggests that the lunatic asylums were not identified with the community and that patients (inmates) were not there to be helped. A custodial service operated. Certainly the development of asylums was important in terms of the network concept. If the family couldn't continue to fulfil its function of caring for the sick, then someone had to take over this responsibility and hence another example of growing community responsibility.

It is not seen as appropriate, or necessary, to discuss in detail the historical development of the various fields of helping. The purpose has been to note the contribution of voluntary effort and this has made its major historical contribution to the field of social work.

An issue of some importance to this thesis, is to note that the emphasis in relation to helping, is very much on personal helping - therapeutics, i.e. helping people with personal and social problems. Helping can in its broadest context be seen to include three spheres of activity, (1) welfare administration, (2) therapeutics and (3) social planning. We have noted how the emphasis has shifted over the years and is continuing to shift. Without wanting to limit the concept of helping, it is necessary to limit our discussion to the area of therapeutics, this being the basis of the study. Having made that point, it is necessary to note, (as we shall again later in some detail), the re-emergence of the volunteer in the helping services, began at a public welfare level, moved to a therapeutic level, and now is beginning to move into the area of social planning.

To highlight the professionalization of helping we turn to Woodroofe (1962) who quotes from the Charity Organisation Society report of 1883-84 and a report of the Family service Association of America of 1950.

"When, in 1883, the Kensington Committee of the London Charity Organisation Society was requested to investigate the case of one 'R.M.' to decide whether he should be given a small grant of money to begin life as a hawker of table brushes, the Committee's recommendation was succinctly decisive, the decision immediately applied, and the outcome economically profitable to the applicant. 'We found his employers gave him excellent characters', wrote the friendly visitor in her record of the case. ..... We reported to the gentleman interested that we thought the man likely to do well and he sent us the money to lay out a stock. From all we hear, the man is doing a good trade, and making an independent living'. In 1948, however, when an unhappy client, Mr Murray, sought the aid of the Family Service Association of America to help him to solve a problem of what his case record called 'unsatisfactory job adjustment', the exploration of the problem was more prolonged, an entirely different set of factors was considered relevant to the diagnosis, the caseworker obviously conceived her role as something more than dispenser of the loan requested, and the client's dividends were psychological rather than economic. Mr Murray, it is clear, was encouraged in interviews, to talk about himself in relation to his parents, his friends, his job and his marriage; intelligence and aptitude tests were clapped upon him; he submitted to a Rorschach test, and was examined at intervals by a psychiatrist. From evidence so painstakingly amassed, the conclusion was reached that Mr Murray was an emotional Peter Pan. His behaviour, according to this case record, was a reflection of his 'inner problems, tensions and fears'; he fell in 'the general classification of character disturbance'; and although 'chronologically adult', and with mature responsibilities of marriage, parenthood and economic support, he was 'emotionally still in need, like the child, of looking to adults for security, reassurance of his strength, and help in controlling his impulses'.

Helping him to overcome his handicap of emotional immaturity and to reach an understanding of himself as a first step towards adjustment was obviously considered to be more beneficial than giving him a 'sufficient financial backlog' to allow him to resign his present job and to seek another."

Woodroofe says "Comparing the two cases, it is obvious that the caseworker handling Mr Murray's problem was dealing with different concepts, different values, and even different facts from those which troubled the mind of her occupational ancestor in the London suburb of Kensington in 1883. The relationship between worker and client was essentially different; the spotlight was focused on the person rather than the problem; a more thorough exploration of personal relationships in the home and the job was made, and treatment was conceived in terms of encouraging the client to know himself rather than of mending a hole in his pocket. So far had the caseworker of 1948 parted company with the friendly visitor of 1883."

What had happened to bring about this change? It could be summed up by saying that professionalization was occurring. Heraud (1970), has noted that "the movement of occupations towards professional status is one of the features of modern societies" Goode (1960) has said "an industrialising society is a professionalising society". Bishop (1973) s says that in Australia, the percentage of the workforce employed in professional and semi-professional occupations has increased from about 6% in 1945, to nearly 10% in the late 60's. This is similar to the United States of America where in 1870 2.5% of the labour force were professionals and by the 60's this had risen to about 10% (Lenski 1966, as quoted by Bishop). The New Zealand Census has a category 'Professional Technical & Related Workers' and figures are only available for this category from 1956. At that time 8.76% of the actively engaged population was in this category; in 1961 it was 9.4% and in 1966 the figure was 10.2%. (N.Z. Census 1956, 1961, and 1966.)

Certainly, social work, counselling and psychology have been in the scramble for professional status. Psychiatrists, through belonging to the medical profession, already have professional status.

Some clarification of terms seems necessary, as well as some clarification of the sociological perspectives regarding professionals, and professionalization. Millerson (1964) points out that there are three basic problems which account for the confusion and uncertainty

regarding the term profession. These are "(1) semantic confusion resulting from wide and excessive use of the term, (2) structural limitations enforced by attempts to devise fundamental characteristics of a profession and (3) the adherance to a static model, rather than an appreciation of the dynamic process involved in professionalism". What Millerson is suggesting, particularly in relation to points 2 and 3 is that there are two diverse approaches to the sociology of professions. The first suggests an "ideal type" approach which can be conceptualised by a series of "traits", against which those aspiring to professional status can measure themselves. The "model type" approach is represented in the writings of Carr-Saunders (1928); Caplow (1954); Greenwood (1957); Goode (1960); Blau and Scott (1963); Millerson (1964); Volmer and Mills (1966); and Moore (1970). Each of these writers differ in their choice of traits. Greenwood (1957), because he writes in relation to our area of helping in particular, and because he studied other writers and has "distilled the common elements", is quoted as an example. "All professions seem to possess", he says, "(1) a body of systematic theory, (2) authority, (3) community sanction, (4) ethical codes and (5) a culture." Millerson (1964) in a survey of "trait" theorists, found 23 different areas mentioned.

The second approach is the "process" or "emergent" approach to the study of professions, which suggests that a variety of occupations have progressed only so far on one or some of these continuum, and will steadily improve their position in the future. This position is represented by writers such as, Bucher & Strauss (1961); Wilensky (1966); Etzioni (1966, 1969); and Goode (1969). Wilensky (1963) offers the following steps as typical of this process: "(1) Full-time activity at the task; (2) establishment of university training; (3) national professional association; (4) redefinition of the core task, so as to give the "dirty work"over to subordinates; (5) conflict between the old timers and the new men who seek to upgrade the job; (6) competition between the new occupations and neighbouring ones; (7) political agitation in order to gain legal protection; and (8) code of ethics." Again, this is but one conceptualisation, used as an example.

Our concern is with the helping groups, and it is interesting to find Bennett and Hokenstad (1973), suggesting that neither of the two approaches above are adequate. They use the term 'full-time people workers', for professional helpers, but point to the fact that this

same group are referred to variously as 'semi-professions' (Etzioni 1966); 'new professions' (Marshall 1965); 'aspiring professions' (Goode 1969); 'human services' (Riessman and Pearl 1965); 'personal service professions' (Halmos 1970) and many others. Bennett and Hokenstad suggest that the nature of human service work raises serious questions about whether the 'professional model' is appropriate at all, for describing the major modes of people working. Because the people working professions can be distinguished from the other professions in that their knowledge base is more methodological and less substantive; because the object of service is the client himself; because they function primarily as catalysts; because they are largely salaried employees and have less professional autonomy, the people working fields must be seen as social forms in their own right. Bennett and Hokenstad suggest the utility of a new ideal type of personal service professional which is in no way simply a minor adjustment to the model against which the 'traditional professions' have been judged. If the notion of a 'knowledge base' is still relevant it must be a new type of knowledge that is considered 'basic'; we have chosen to suggest anthropogogical knowledge as that alternative. Similarly, we have chosen to reject the criteria of autonomy and substitute the criteria of political accountability. Only perhaps the criteria of a 'service ideal' does not need to be rewritten to provide an analytic definition of the 'personal service professional'. In short, the personal professional, in juxtaposition to the traditional professional is defined as a worker engaged in a service to some client, who works from an anthropogogical knowledge base and whose job is manifestly political in nature or which at least has strong political implications," they say. In fact, the authors would like to suggest the necessity of developing two ideal types: (1) the personal service professions (described above) and (2) the craft professions (fitting the traditional model) as two very fundamentally different modes of work which should never be directly compared and should be distinguished in sociological theory about the past, present and future of the world of work. This position seems very relevant and helpful to the understanding of the professionalisation of helping, and marks an interesting new development.

Toren (1972) describes social work as a semi-profession, and in so doing links the professionalization process to an earlier point discussed, namely the shift from reformist to therapeutic position. Toren says, "The dilemma of 'reform' and 'welfare' versus 'casework' on the ideological and structural levels has its repercussions on the role level, that is, on the orientation and performance of the individual social worker. The growing emphasis on the personality-focused therapeutic approach was accompanied by a transition from preoccupation with reform to preoccupation with technical professionalism. The tendency of the social worker to identify his tasks as 'casework' instead of 'public welfare' is part of the process of professionalization. It is an attempt to base the role on scientific knowledge and methods acquired by distinctive training, and thus to protect it from encroachment by anyone without proper training. By comparison, it is much more difficult to monopolize social welfare or to give it a scientific base."

The professionalization of helping has been assisted by many factors. The central factors, without much doubt, have been the growth of personnel and the education of those personnel. The growth has been remarkable. Rosenberg (1972) has pointed out that the 1956 census for New Zealand, enumerated 583 persons occupied in spheres which normally can be defined as "social work". By 1966 the figures had risen by 121 per cent to 1294. The growth of the New Zealand Association of Social Workers provides similar evidence. In 1964, the year the Association was formed, the membership was 121. By 1974 this figure had risen to 650. The growth rates in psychology, psychiatry and counselling have not been so dramatic.

Probably the area of education would have had a greater impact than the growth factor. Grosser et al (1971) state that "the development of the professional in any field rests in substantial part on forms of exclusion. As one defines the tasks and judgements to be exercised by members of a given profession, one establishes credentials which are thought to reflect the appropriate competence and training. These acts of standard setting are understood to be approximations and to define the lower limits permitting membership. Beyond these minimal standards the professions do little in a formal way to define particular competence." Heraud (1970), says professional training is the most important influence in the creation of a professional culture.

Jackson (1970) says that professionals obtain their power from academic training. He goes on to say "The three core professions; law, medicine and theology, found in the universities a means whereby they could perpetuate the characteristics of their professional wisdom as being based on the generalised learning of humane discipline and in close association with them, rather than simply depending on craft factors in the learning of techniques and skills. The setting of the training process within the environment of an academic community with primary concerns in the dispassionate profession of knowledge itself seems to extend the range of legitimation and to add luster and supra-authority to the ideals of detachment, public rather than self-interest service to an ideal and ethic. It has been usual for aspirant professions to find incorporation within the structure of university for their training courses, e.g. veterinary medicine, dentists, town-planners, social workers. Most university courses are a preparation for the practice of a particular profession."

Social work took some time to be accepted as a discipline for which one needed training. It was 1929, before the first specifically social work course was set up in the United Kingdom, this being at the London School of Economics. This was the same year that the first course was established in Australia. New Zealand had to wait till 1949 for its first course in social work. The second and third such courses in New Zealand are projected for 1976, a gap of 27 years. This is not to say that demands for training courses have not been in evidence. As early as 1925, John Beck, Head of the Special Schools Branch of the Department of Education went overseas and on his return recalled how "every university had a Social Science Department in the U.S.A.". Beck (1927) pressed for similar training opportunities in New Zealand.

The history of social work training in New Zealand makes for sorry reading. Levett (1970) found from his survey that less than 10% of social workers in New Zealand had a professional qualification in social work. With the rapid increase in establishments of government departments, as well as new fields of service opening up, the proportion of trained workers would now be much less.

The field of counselling is comparatively new in New Zealand. The first teaching in psychological counselling was as part of the clinical psychology programme at the University of Canterbury in 1960. (Shouksmith 1960). It was not until 1973 that the first course in

counselling and guidance (specifically for school guidance counsellors) was introduced. A high proportion of counsellors (with the exception of those in the universities) do not hold professional qualifications. No specific figures are available.

Psychiatry as a specialisation of medicine in New Zealand has only provided training opportunities within New Zealand in the last four years.

By western world standards, helping has not been provided with adequate training opportunities in New Zealand. This may well account for the inadequate state of services for those experiencing conflict, and for the fact that there has been only limited pressure from the professional groups for improved training.

What is observable from other countries is that training has lead to increased political status and bargaining power. It has also, hopefully provided a better service for clients.

Training has become such a powerful issue for the helping professions, that we now find many of them restricting entry to the profession to those who have been through a professional course. The moves afoot in New Zealand to bring about registration for psychologists, is yet another example of the restrictiveness that has come with professionalization. "It has almost got to the stage where there is no room for the well-meaning citizen, helping is all sown up within the province of the professionals," an overseas visitor commented recently.

In New Zealand, the field is not all sown up, although some would wish it thatway. Growth in terms of numbers has been dramatic, and in terms of training opportunities, a new impetus has struck. The Aves Report (1969) sums up the implications of this professionalization of helping in terms of the professional and volunteer by saying, "It is not surprising that members of a profession whose boundaries have still to be defined, and which had grown up so rapidly and so recently, should still face some uncertainties; and that they should find it difficult to reconcile their view of themselves, as people trained to undertake skilled work and to deal with complex problems, with the idea that volunteers can help them in their work. The difficulty is particularly acute for those just completing their training; especially since they are likely to have found little or nothing in their training to help them to accept the idea, or to influence their attitude to voluntary help. Much of the training

provided for social workers has been focused on ways of giving professional help to people with serious social or emotional difficulties. Newly trained workers will have become aware of the wide scope and complexity of the work, but are still uncertain of their own skills; and may, in spite of their training, find it difficult to see what their proper relationship with unqualified workers, whether paid or voluntary, should be. It is possible that they will never have met voluntary workers in action, and they may have a false idea of them as patronizing 'do-gooders' or as dangerous amateurs." This leads us very appropriately into our next section which discusses the re-emergence of the nonprofessional or volunteer.

(D) THE RE-EMERGENCE OF THE NONPROFESSIONAL:

Scheier (1970) in describing the probation service in the U.S.A. says "Probation began with volunteers; some believe it will end with them, with volunteer probation counsellors, tutors, foster parents, office workers, and the like. However that is taken, the early volunteers were honourably discharged as soon as we could pay people, and the pendulum swung hard toward paid professionals in the first five decades of this century. Today the pendulum swings back toward volunteers - but with a difference. Where first probation was all volunteer and later virtually all paid professional, today it is both, and both are here to stay." Scheier (1970) continues "Probation will never again be all volunteer. But neither will it ever again be all paid professional. Therefore, the problem of modern volunteerism differs crucially from the problem of early volunteerism in corrections, for it becomes an issue of relationship between volunteer and paid professional, a problem of defining optimum roles for each in a productive probation partnership. John Augutus, as probation's founding father, incorporated "volunteer" and "probation officer" in one body; just so we must learn to incorporate in the body of probation, both volunteer and paid professional. As in any new marriage, we will have to work at it, and we may still have to be satisfied with something less than perfect integration; but we cannot afford to be content with as little as coexistence. Divorce is impossible." What Scheier says of probation is becoming increasingly true of the helping field as a whole. The pendulum has swung from one extreme to the other and is now returning to a centre point. Hence the title of this section emphasises "re-emergence".

What evidence is there to suggest that nonprofessionals are re-emerging as a potent force of manpower to meet the social and personal problems of today?

The first and most powerful piece of evidence must be the growth of literature which reports innovative programmes involving nonprofessionals. I have been able to find references to over 450 reports of programmes or projects involving nonprofessionals. It is rare to find such reports prior to 1960. One could make the comment that what these reports represent, is the literature explosion in general and in particular the growth of journals and books in the area of helping. While this is acknowledged, as a factor, it needs to be also recognised that the other factors mentioned below, combine to suggest strongly, that the re-emergence that began as a trickle, has become a raging torrent.

A second, and associated point of evidence, has been the interest in studying and reporting on the contribution of nonprofessionals, such reports being frequently carried out with government support. In the United Kingdom the Aves Report was published in 1969, and the Stevenson Report in 1972. In the U.S.A. Sobey (1970) undertook on behalf of the National Institute of Mental Health, a study covering 185 government-sponsored mental health programmes. Albee (1959) prepared for the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health a monograph entitled "Mental Health Manpower Trends" in which he said there would not in the foreseeable future, be enough mental health personnel to meet demands for service. Another publication of the Joint Commission, "Action for Mental Health" also gives considerable attention to this field. Such U.S.A. government sponsored programmes as the Peace Corps, the Vista programme and Project Head Start, show an increased government interest and commitment.

The United Nations has also become involved in this area by setting up a study group on "The Functions and Preparation of Voluntary Workers in the Social Services" in 1967. The United Nations has been further involved through reports in 1970 - "Social Welfare in the Context of National Development Plans" and 1971 "Training for Social Welfare" - this latter report being the fifth in a series on the subject.

No such literature has been prepared specifically on New Zealand - a factor which prompted my interest in the subject.

A third area of evidence concerning the re-emergence of nonprofessionals lies in the number of concerned citizens who wish to make a voluntary contribution to the well-being of their community. Most professional helpers are confronted by increasing numbers of people wanting to offer time and help. This is a subjective statement, based on discussions with colleagues and is therefore open to considerable criticism. This criticism gains ground from a survey carried out by the Society for Research on Women (1973), in the Wellington area. The survey arose out of a section on unpaid community work which appeared in "Urban Women" (1972). That section stated that of the 5,400 women between 16 and 60 interviewed, 37% did some unpaid community work. The study (1973), specifically on the Wellington area, found that of 119 organisations interviewed, 31 stated they did not use volunteers. 48% of the remainder stated they always needed more volunteers than they were able to get and a further 28% are sometimes short, or are short of certain kinds of people. I would suggest that these results don't indicate a shortage of volunteers, but rather that volunteers frequently are not in touch with agencies offering service. The survey picked up this point and included a question in the advisability of a 'clearing house' for offers of help; Over 70% of agencies said 'yes', or 'perhaps' to such a clearing house.

One other study conducted by the Christian Council of Social Service (1973), asked each church related social service how many volunteers were involved in their work. The responses varied considerably 6 of the 14 agencies said they had no volunteers involved, 3 agencies had 20 or less and the remaining five were, many, 45, 100, 150 and 200. These differences may be accounted for by different agency functions, but the wording of the questions, would I feel, have caused confusion.

The only other evidence available to me, was that obtained from the present study, which indicated that over 400 names were on lists of agencies in Palmerston North offering personal service. Some peoples names appeared more than once, indicating a lower figure than 400. There are many other nonprofessionals who offer help in other than the personal service area, and through 'self-help' organisations.

If it is accepted that there is evidence of a re-emergence of voluntary citizen help, what has brought this about?

Three broad areas seem to be in evidence, firstly societal trends, secondly manpower issues and thirdly the realisation that the non-professional has a contribution to make. This last factor is considered as a separate area appearing as Chapter 2. We look at each of these in turn.

(1.) Societal trends.

There is a growing literature on the subject of societal trends relating to our society in general, and in particular to the human services. An attempt is made to summarise eleven sources commenting on societal trends.

The trend which arouses most discussion is that associated with loss of control over our lives and loss of the personal element. The societal response to this has been, according to Schindler-Rainmon & Lippitt (1971), an increasing emphasis on democracy and citizen participation. O'Donnell (1970) says "Today, this country (U.S.A.) is experiencing both the flak and the fallout of the "participating explosion" from the historical civil rights sit-ins to the histrionic hippie human be-ins, everyone wants "in", - to be involved, if not in control".

Part of this feeling arises, Guerney (1969), suggests, because of the realisation that "something can be done" now. Schindler-Rainmon & Lippit (1970) say that there need to be structures created which will provide opportunities for participation and that such structures are essential for the democratic social system. These same writers outline some eight trends which they believe will have a considerable bearing on the future of voluntarism in the future. One of these they state as "search for personal meaning identity, self-renewal and interpersonal connection". Massness, they suggest, has lead to depersonalization. Aves (1969), says that such a trend has produced a desire to counteract this, by undertaking activities which give scope for spontaneity, initiative and contact with other people. Sobey (1970) argues much the same case saying that the "social isolation in modern times has lead to social deprivation".

A second trend, which is highlighted by the Stevenson Report (1972), is the increased involvement of government in matters of human service. This we have covered earlier. The Stevenson Report notes, however, that as a result of these concrete changes, there has been a fundamental change in attitudes: "today when we see a problem, our first reaction is nearly always that the government should do something about it". They suggest that the fact that their report is in many places addressed to the government, is only one instance of this attitude. That governments are limited in the amount of assistance they can offer means that a great deal of voluntary assistance is still needed. This need is felt to

be growing. Schindler-Rainmon & Lippitt (1971) say that in the post-industrial economy of the U.S.A., "half of the paid positions are human service jobs rather than thing production jobs. By 1975 it is predicted that at least 75% of the work roles in our society will be human service. Because the economy will not support a very large increase in the ratio of professions to clients, there will be a large demand in education, medicine, and other fields for recruitment and training of volunteers as aids and co-workers".

Associated with the above point is a third trend and one highlighted by Mahler (1973). He says "society is moving from a technological to a human-life-oriented era". Part of this has been brought about by what Aves (1969) and Schindler-Rainmon and Lippitt (1971) describe as affluence, leisure, and the changing nature and meaning of work and achievement factors. These are but end-products of technological change and moreover technological change has both added stresses to society, and allowed society more time to contemplate them. The result has been an awareness of a sensitivity to social issues. The social issues now encompass the exploitation, pollution and neglect of our natural environment as well as the misuse and lack of use of human resources.

The Stevenson Report (1972) notes another societal trend in the increased independence of young people. The report states, "young people are now questioning the values of their parents' society - and putting their words into action - more systematically and more radically than ever before. This has shown negative manifestations, but we believe these are far outweighed by the positive". Much of the impetus in voluntary effort has come from the young in movements such as the Peace Corp in the U.S.A. and Community Volunteers in New Zealand. The Aves Report (1969) says "We cannot define precisely the springs of voluntary action among young people, but it seems indisputable that there is at the moment a surge of idealism and of dissatisfaction with traditional social institutions which find some outlet in increased voluntary work in the social services. Many young people are coming to realize the implicit link between the voluntary work they undertake and their concern over wider political issues. Some are inclined to turn away from what they identify as voluntary work, fearing it to be a patching-up of a situation requiring a more radical solution; but others recognize that it introduces them to fields in which action on other than political levels is also appropriate. There is clearly a link between this kind of

motivation and that of members of pressure groups and social reformers". Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971), extend this point to note that the changes that are taking place in the institutions and programmes for the socialization of the young, changes which are involving them much more in their own education and socialization processes, are making them more aware of their community around them, both at local, national and world-wide level.

Schnindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971) list three other societal trends which they feel are going to influence voluntarism in the future. These are firstly, an increasing rate and complexity of social and technological change - the only thing we can be certain of is change; secondly, separation and polarization of social, economic and political groups - expectations and demands for a better life will generate distrust and competition; thirdly, involvement in a world society - the trend towards international collaboration in problem solving will accentuate.

It is interesting to note that these writers were making predictions about the future in outlining these societal trends. Their book was written in 1971, and already we see evidence of how these trends are becoming more pronounced.

Mahler (1973) outlines four major trends which account, he says, for more active citizen participation at a voluntary level. One we noted earlier, namely the move from technological to human-life-oriented era. The remaining three are firstly, people are shifting from a hierarchical view of the world to one in which they look more to their peers; secondly there is now more emphasis on what a person is able to do than on his academic preparation or his acquired wisdom; and thirdly there is an increased demand for self-realisation.

Another societal trend which demands attention is the growing mood of antiprofessionalism. This is evidenced by the growth of the counter-culture and is, according to Clark and Jaffe (1972), "fueled by young people's discontent with, and distrust of, the established social order, its values, structures and systems." Dilley (1972) writing of "The Anti-Shrink think Movement" in the U.S.A. says that there is a growing body of critics of professional helpers, at present largely unorganised, who believe that something is wrong with the training and practice of the helping professions. Such critics "gain legitimacy and

strength from creative renegades with professional stature, such as Szasz (1961), Laing (1967) and Cooper (1970)". There are many attacks on professionals, mostly appearing in the underground press. "The Radical Therapist," is cited as one of the leading papers in the U.S.A. in this respect.

There is some evidence of antiprofessionalism in New Zealand. The first edition of Community Forum (1974), a magazine partly financed by the Auckland City Council, devotes most of its pages to discussing professionals and volunteers working, or failing to work together. Two articles, Shawyer (1974) and Wark (1974), contain something of the beginnings of the feelings expressed above.

One of the best known expressions of radicalism in the field of helping in Britain is found in Case Con, an organization founded in 1970. It has as one of its aims the radicalising of social work, and has a circulation of 4,500 for its journal and newsletter. Heraud (1973) and Perrucci (1973) in very good articles on the radical movement, present a summary of the expression of radicalism as it relates to antiprofessionalism in the U.K. and U.S.A. One of the regrets is that few professional helpers are aware of such writings and if they are, they dismiss them as irrelevant. Disagree we may do, but dismiss we cannot do. Specht (1972) in an article entitled, 'The Deprofessionalization of Social Work', says there are four ideological currents which contribute to an anti-professionalism position. These are activism, anti-individualism, communalism and environmental determinism. Each of these he expands in detail and comments on their implications.

Halmos (1965 and 1973) has summarised the radical critics position well when he says "This anti-professionalism is one of the facets of contemporary radicalism and consists of several interconnected elements. These elements cluster mainly around two propositions; the first of these asserts that the claim for a so-called 'service ethic' specific to the professionals is a sheer mystification of status claims and a device to silence the critics of monopoly, privilege, and power, to which the professionals are alleged to cling. The professionals are entrepreneurs and self-serving agents like everybody else, presumably including their radical political critics who are more often than not academic professionals themselves. The personal service professionals lack collective responsibility when, for example, as Perucci says, 'physicians

do not bother about the health care of those who can't pay .....'. The personal service professionals are especially attacked for their hypocritical 'caring' postures and are charged with being impersonal. The second proposition asserts that professionals, and especially the personal service variety, are perpetuators of unjust systems and preservers of the status quo in an exploitive social order. They present their social indifference as political liberalism and their selfishness as elitism or political conservatism. Their anti-unionism is said to be sham for, in defence of their privileges, they use all the organisational power and lobbying influence they can marshal. They are social defeatists and fatalists either because they tend to interpret the individuals miseries in terms of individual psychogenesis, or in terms of a geneticist or constitutionalist biology, and not in terms of alterable social structural factors. They clinicise social problems and even mysify their methods of therapeutic or paedagogical intervention". Halmos responds to these criticisms, by suggesting that the whole force of the radical critic's argument is aimed at the securing of the equitable distribution of personal services and not at the elimination of these services. The concern must be over the fact that such critics seem to want to eliminate the services and the professionals who run them and this wouldn't seem to be the most effective means of securing a more equitable distribution.

It would appear as if antiprofessionalism is growing and its presence and influence needs to be considered very fully by professionals.

This section has noted a number of societal trends which have had, or it is predicted will have, an effect on the re-emergence of voluntary effort in the community. Debate obviously must be aroused about such societal trends and their validity but what cannot be debated, is that together they represent a strong indication of factors occuring at a societal level which have considerable significance for the human services in general, and in particular, the contribution of the nonprofessional to those services.

(2) Manpower Issues.

Guerney (1969) in the introduction to his very influential book, "Psychotherapeutic Agents", says, "It is now acknowledged that professional manpower cannot meet the mental health needs of the population through the use of present methods, and that there is no

reasonable hope that such manpower, can be increased sufficiently to do so in the future". Albee (1959) argues in his monograph prepared for the Joint Commission on Mental Illness and Health (U.S.A.), that the prospective supply of people for training in the mental health profession is limited, demands for services will continue to grow more rapidly than the population of the country, and there will not be in the forseeable future enough mental health personnel to meet demands for service. Albee says that many people think we can catch up with the training backlog but he sees this as impossible. A very similar position is outlined by Smith and Hobbs (1966), Gordon (1965), Kadish (1969), Grosser (1969), Grosser, Henry and Kelly (1969) and Sobey (1970). The latter says that "no professional discipline in America today is producing enough graduates to keep up with population increases".

If we take two examples from New Zealand, we see the same picture. The training courses available for social workers in New Zealand at present are not even keeping pace with the natural growth, let alone making up the estimated 90% of untrained workers in the field. New social work courses planned to commence in 1976 will provide an additional 20 places (approximately) per year, which will be swallowed up by natural growth many times over. (See Levett 1970). Additional social work courses are planned. The second example relates to school guidance counsellors, where at present there are approximately 20 training places available each year. Again this represents a little more than the natural growth rate, but does little to provide opportunities for the estimated 50 untrained workers already in post.

The realisation that professional manpower will never be sufficient to meet the needs, had led to a re-emergence of the nonprofessional as a source of manpower. Many writers have suggested that this is the main reason for the re-emergence of the nonprofessional, in other words, shear practicalities. Such a position, as we have already seen, and will see, does not represent the complete picture.

A third piece of evidence associated with the re-emergence of the nonprofessional is much broader, and relates to a number of other factors. This is the realisation that the nonprofessional has a contribution to make. This area we turn to as a separate chapter.

CHAPTER II

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE NONPROFESSIONAL

This chapter will look at some factors associated with the recognition of the contribution of the nonprofessional and then turn to examples of nonprofessional contributions.

(A) The recognition that the nonprofessional has a contribution to make.

As Chapter I has indicated, the nonprofessional was the innovator of most of the helping services that operate today. The professionalization of helping, with its emphasis on education and training lead to a situation where the nonprofessional was largely ignored by professional helpers. That this is now changing, is in part due to the recognition that the nonprofessional has a contribution to make. The positive value of this contribution is rapidly being recognised, as evidenced by the growing body of literature reporting programmes in which professional and nonprofessional work together.

One of the concerns expressed by Fitch et al (1971) about this literature, is that all the articles "are written from the professional standpoint for professional consumption". Little has been written from the indigenous workers point of view. This thesis does nothing to right that imbalance.

I) Recognition through "self-help" organisations. The Aves Report (1969) notes the achievements of the self-help movement and the way in which it has exercised a "pioneering role". "Some of the most effective developments in voluntary effort are to be found in organisations commonly described as of the "self-help" type". The self-help approach is based on the principle that the target of change is also the medium and agent of change. Probably the best known self-help organisation is Alcoholics Anonymous, which is world wide. It is perhaps significant that professional helpers and institutions have achieved remarkably little in the rehabilitation of the alcoholic. Whether in response to this fact, or because of other factors, alcoholics banded together to help themselves. Their results (it has not been possible to find any reported in detail) all indicate that their influence has been most beneficial.

Another organisation, well known in the U.S.A. is Synanon which works in the area of drug dependency. Success and failure rates are unknown, but members of the group feel that the presence of former addicts, free from dope in Synanon programmes, is evidence of success. Cressey (1955) has outlined a theory on which self-help programmes are based. New self-help groups are continually surfacing. Recently formed groups include Gamblers Anonymous, Single Mothers Groups, Blind and Aged Social Club, Epilepsy Association, Deaf Clubs and Specific Learning Disabilities Group. The spontaneity of such groups is a response to need.

The recognition that the self-help groups were frequently very effective, helped stimulate interest in the use of indigenous personnel, to which we shall turn later.

II) Recognition through research. The introduction to this thesis made reference to the research of Carkhuff. Carkhuff (1969) has summarised the research which shows the effectiveness of "lay persons" and it would be pointless to do other than to quote him. He says, "Extensive evidence indicates that lay persons can be trained to function at minimally facilitative levels of conditions related to constructive client change over relatively short periods of time. Both carefully screened college graduates interested in school guidance activities, and unselected volunteers from school, hospital and community at large; demonstrate change in the direction of more facilitative functioning on dimensions related to constructive client change or gain in training periods ranging from 20 hours to one year". Carkhuff then quotes 13 studies as evidence of this point. So in the area of effectiveness of training there is evidence to support the fact that nonprofessionals can be trained to effective levels. He goes further, to quote the research evidence to show that "lay persons" can effect significant constructive change in the clients whom he sees. He quotes the following studies from four areas, hospitalized neuropsychiatric patients, outpatient neuropsychiatric patients, normals situationally distressed or otherwise and children; "Hospitalized neuropsychiatric patients (Anker & Walsh 1961; Appleby, 1963; Beck, Kantor & Gelineau, 1963; Carkhuff & Traux, 1965; Colarelli & Siegel, 1963; Glasser, 1965; Greenblatt & Kantor, 1962; Holzberg & Knapp, 1965; Kantor & Greenblatt, 1962; Korson & Hayes, 1966; Poser, 1966; Siegel & Colarelli, 1964; Tudor, 1952; Warme, 1965), outpatient neuropsychiatric patients (Magoon & Colann, 1966; Mendel & Rapport, 1963; Rioch, Elkes, Flint, Usdansky, Newman & Sibler, 1963),

normals situationally distressed or otherwise (Brown, 1965; Harvey, 1964; Zunker & Brown, 1966), and children (Guerney, 1964; Guerney, Guerney & Andronico, 1966; Wahler, Winkel, Peterson, & Morrison, 1965). To these may be added some more recent studies, namely, Baumwall (1971); Perkins and Atkinson (1973); Berzins and Ross (1972); Cowen, Dorr, Trost & Izzo (1972); Marozas, Huncke and Bohnert (1971); Rappaport (1973). Sobey (1969) also cites many other studies and in particular, gives evidence of the effective contribution of the nonprofessional.

What will be obvious is that there is now a considerable body of research evidence to support the notion that the nonprofessional has a contribution to make in terms of effective service.

III) Recognition of the advantages of nonprofessional service. The growing literature on the subject of nonprofessionals in the human services is almost entirely positive. Many advantages are cited of the contribution that has and can be made. Katan (1973) makes an interesting point in relation to this literature. He says that it represents three main types of studies, "(1) Books and articles extolling the advantages of employing indigenous workers, but without adequate empirical evidence. (2) Descriptions of the activities of nonprofessionals in various agencies, most of them written by people working in these agencies, and (3) Some pioneering attempts to conceptualize different aspects of the nonprofessional's integration into organizations.

In the light of the discussion regarding research in this area, exception must be taken to Katan's argument regarding lack of empirical evidence. What I believe has happened is that many studies have advocated the use of nonprofessionals, and many studies have reported research findings relating to effectiveness, but the two have not been satisfactorily brought together. The book by Guerney (1969) has been the only comprehensive attempt to bring together a collection of studies, which represent these two positions. The influence of this book has been very substantial. Five specific areas of advantages are noted.

1. For clients. Hardcastle (1971) says, "the major reason for using indigenous nonprofessionals in social service agencies is that their special skills improve service". This means, as Hardcastle points out, that clients benefit. The word indigenous is used and needs to be explained. The nonprofessional may be indigenous in either of two ways;

firstly through cultural affiliation with the client group, i.e. the worker will possess insights into values, beliefs, morals and custom and be able to communicate more freely, and secondly through shared problem experiences with the client group, i.e. experienced similar crises or disadvantages.

It will not be difficult to recognise that a maori who has an alcoholic spouse, will be able to appreciate and get close to another maori in the same situation. Such a position does not suggest that it is only as a result of being of the same culture, or having experienced the same crisis, that help can be offered.

Other advantages the nonprofessional has over the professional are his being closer to the client in mode of life and thought, he understands the clients problems, and he can more easily establish rapport. Carkhuff (1971) says, "persons indigenous to the populations being serviced appear to have a greater ability (1) to enter the milieu of the distressed; (2) to establish peer-like relationships with persons needing help; (3) to take an active part in the distressed persons total life situation; (4) to empathize more effectively with the distressed persons life style; (5) to teach the distressed person, from within his frame of reference, more effective actions; (6) to provide the distressed person with an effective transition to higher levels of functioning within the social system."

In the field of poverty, the poor are more easily able to understand and get to 'where the client is', than the middle-class professional. Hauer (1973), Sue (1973), Reinherz (1969), Kreitzer (1969), Goodman (1969), Mechanick (1971), all report examples of programmes which have used university students to help other students, the suggestion being that they will be able to reach some students in ways that the professional won't, and they will be able to achieve some things that professionals won't. The same principle applies in many other fields of helping. Sobey (1969) found from her research (based on a study of 10,000 nonprofessionals in 185 different projects in the U.S.A.), that 60% of professional respondents used nonprofessionals because "they felt they could communicate better with the patient-client groups or reduce the oft-cited problems of 'social distance' between professional and patient group."

The other area of benefit that the nonprofessional brings to the client is his enthusiasm, a factor which all humans respond to. Rapport, Chinsky & Cowen (1971), suggest that the enthusiasm and genuine willingness to view and interact with the patients as people rather than as the hopeless and incurably 'sick', is a key factor in the nonprofessionals effectiveness. The other advantage, is that discussed in the previous section on research, namely, that the nonprofessional is effective.

2. For helping services. The view that nonprofessionals help to ease the workload of professionals is challenged strongly by Hardcastle (1971) when he says that "the nonprofessional does not reduce the professionals workload, but expands the range and scope of agency service. The indigenous nonprofessional is not functionally beneath the professional; he is simply functionally different". Riessman (1965) supports this when he says nonprofessionals are used to "provide new services in innovative ways".

Sigurdson (1969) points out that most helping services, particularly those involving institution care, are dedicated to serving the needs of the system. The intervention of the nonprofessional has helped to shift the emphasis away from this and towards a greater concern for the needs of the people who enter the system.

Katan (1973) says that one of the advantages of nonprofessional involvement, is that it leads to a better understanding of the service by clients. The nonprofessional may interpret policy and the rules of the agency staff to the clients on one hand, while informing the staff about the needs of the clientele on the other hand. If an agency becomes so restrictive in terms of the nonprofessional, we see the development of alternative programmes.

Smith and Hobbs (1966), have outlined in some detail the Community Mental Health Centre development in the U.S.A., and point out that the emphasis on community care has lead to a broadening of the range of services and this has been the impetus of changes within the mental health field that has been responsible for a great deal of the advances in nonprofessional utilization. Sobey (1969) sums it up by saying "Whatever the setting, the day of the exclusive mental health interdisciplinary team (psychiatrist, psychiatric social worker, psychologist, and nurse in the hospital setting) is drawing to a close.

The team has expanded to include other disciplines and allied nonprofessionals who will work to distribute a much wider spectrum of services to many new community groups."

3. For the community. Oram (1969) says, "The use of voluntary welfare workers can be an effective way of involving the community in its own problems and enabling people to identify themselves with the wider community". The shift from institutional care to community care (in many fields) has brought the client of helping services much more into community focus. Harbert (1967) suggests that this has led to a greater interest and involvement by the ordinary public in social problems. The Seebohm Committee Report (1968), and the Aves Report (1969), both make it clear that the whole community has a responsibility for care in the community. It was the emphasis on the caring community that made Gerald Caplan's contribution so notable. It is interesting to note that in his early work, Caplan (1961) looked at professional helpers being assisted by community resources in the form of doctors, nurses, teachers and clergy. In his later work, Caplan (1969) recognises the contribution of the nonprofessional. This is a clear example of the rapid change that has been occuring.

The growing emphasis on citizen participation is very relevant to this discussion. It is not disputed that citizens have a basic right to take part in the planning and operation of services and programmes that influence their lives. Lack of knowledge of services and their operation frequently limits the level of participation of citizens. The nonprofessionals involvement in helping services has gone some way to opening up greater possibilities for citizen participation. Such a widening of possibilities is to be welcomed in a democratic society. Citizens can be involved at various levels. Huws Jones (1966) summarises the opportunities very well when he says "The range of tasks covered by voluntary work is staggering; from Chairman of a Committee giving time and taxing effort to a hard task, to those who address envelopes - an activity, somebody said, on which all great causes are built. There are some who strive to make the public see a neglected social evil; others act as voluntary drivers taking meals to housebound old people; some will work to clear a blighted region of its industrial waste or litter; some act as foster parents to children with no homes of their own; some bring life and relief into residential institutions,

from children's homes to prisons; some give their blood freely and regularly to help strangers whom they will never know and some counsel couples with matrimonial difficulties."

Citizen participation was a key theme of the Stevenson Report (1972), so much so, that the title of the report "50 Million Volunteers" indicated that every citizen should and could be involved in voluntary service through citizen participation.

Another advantage to the community of the nonprofessional involvement, has been the emphasis on the 'bridge' nature of the nonprofessional. The nonprofessional is able to bridge the gap between professional or professional service, and community. Reports and discussion of this can be found in Michener and Walzer (1970); Harbert (1967); Jackson (1971); Meyer (1967); and Pearl and Beissman (1965).

Coupled with the above factors, is the education role of the nonprofessional. The Stevenson Report (1972) points out that a learning process is taking place, for the community, as well as the personnel involved. Barr (1971) discusses this fully, saying that the nonprofessional has educative influence upon their family, friends and workmates. His survey, which was focused on volunteers in prison after-care, revealed that of 121 nonprofessional respondents, 119 said that their personal friends knew about their work with ex-prisoners. Desjardins (1969) in discussing a Canadian Mental Health Association hospital visiting programme, concludes by saying "The use of volunteers has done a great deal for community education. One interested volunteer has been worth a hundred pages of printed literature and a dozen public addresses in terms of bringing about changes in public attitudes and practices, - in terms of preparing our community to welcome back the former patient".

4. <u>For the nonprofessionals</u>. One of the very practical advantages of involvement of nonprofessionals in helping services (in a paid capacity) is that employment opportunities are provided. Katan (1973) points out that more poor people should be employed to help others who are poor. The advantages of the indigenous contribution has already been discussed. Sigurdson (1969) says that manpower resources are available among the unemployed and should be utilised.

The main advantage for nonprofessionals however, is that referred to by Riessman (1965) as "The 'helper' therapy principle". Katan (1973) summarizes Riessman's principle as follows:- "The proposition contains two basic ideas: (a) since many indigenous workers recruited for human service jobs are likely to be, school dropouts, delinquent, or otherwise stigmatized individuals, placing them in the helping role will be highly therapeutic for them, and (b) as these therapeutic benefits are realised, these people should become more effective workers and thus a positive growth force in the manpower of the community". Guerney (1969) points out that contrary to the view of the blind leading the blind, there is evidence to suggest that "being an agent of change can help not only the target person, but the agent himself". Professionals have pointed out that their professional work has lead to personal growth for them, and that teachers say the best way to learn is to teach. Riessman (1965) says that "while it may be uncertain that people receiving help are always benefited, it seems more likely that the people giving help are profiting from their role".

Much more work needs to be carried out in this area, but the frequency with which Riessman's principle is quoted suggests a wide recognition of its contribution.

5. <u>For the professionals</u>. The overwhelming proportion of articles on the subject of the nonprofessional contribution make reference to the value that accrues when the nonprofessional is involved. The value that is felt by the professional most is stated to be that associated with the manpower issue. Another 'pair of hands', or another 'listening ear' becomes available to assist. A reading of some of the literature might lead to the conclusion that this is the only reason professionals have allowed nonprofessionals to become involved in 'their' area.

The growth of nonprofessional helping has caused consternation to many professionals. Blau (1969) points out that as far as psychology is concerned, the introduction of large numbers of nonprofessionals would lead to psychologists banding together to discuss the "dangers" of such a move and seeking to limit their contribution to very simple tasks. My reading of the literature suggests that whereas 10 years ago there was considerable attention given to the problems of professional and nonprofessional working together, mainly expressed in terms of fears and anxieties, today there seems much less concern. It is almost as if the

professional has recognised the nonprofessional contribution and is busy working together for the benefit of the client and the community.

Michner and Walzer (1970) suggest that another advantage for the professional is the rationalisation of tasks that can take place. There are skill areas that the professional is not able to express himself in because of his preoccupation with other duties, many of which could be carried out by nonprofessionals. Scheier (1970) points up an example of this rationalisation when he says, "The probation officer who, after paperwork chores, has an hour a month left to spend with each probationer in his caseload, has to consider how to use that one hour. He can spend it directly (a) supervising the probationer, in which case his 1 hour input of time results in 1 hour output of attention received by the probationer. Alternatively, he can spend this hour directly (b) supervising a volunteer who then spends much more time supervising the probationer as his 'caseload of one'. The 1 hour input of time by the probation officer may thus result in 15 hours output of attention received by the probationer".

This section has looked at the recognition of the contribution of the nonprofessional and explored, the advantages of nonprofessional involvement in several areas. Passing reference has been made to the disadvantages that have arisen. The disadvantages that I have found referred to all fall within the professional/nonprofessional relationship area. This area is not being discussed, although Fitch et al (1971); Archibald (1974); the Aves Report (1969); and the Stevenson Report (1972) all cover the topic very adequately.

(B) Examples of the work of the nonprofessional

The literature pertaining to examples of the work of nonprofessionals is now very extensive. One annotated bibliography (Sobey 1969) lists over 450 references to such examples. The period covered for this bibliography was 1955 to 1969. It is obviously impossible to give a review of the literature in this area.

What is worthy of discussion is the way in which attempts to classify the work of nonprofessionals have been made. Three models of classification have been used.

(1) Classification according to the organisation/service in which the nonprofessional operates. Sobey (1969) presents her bibliography in this way with four main settings (a) planning and administration, (b) institutional settings, (c) community settings and (d) specialised services in multiple settings. Sobey further classifies within these four broad categories. This model of classification is the one most frequently used.

(2) Classification according to the level of intervention. Within this area, intervention may take place at (a) tertiary, (b) primary and (c) secondary levels. The tertiary level involves nonprofessionals in helping those with overt and present problems. Primary intervention emphasises the promotion of general health in the community leading to the reduction of maladjustment in the community. Here the focus is community rather than individual. The secondary level involves early case findings and diagnosis. Epidemiological studies are to the fore in this respect. In line with this model, most of the reports of nonprofessional work are at the tertiary level. This model is presented by Sobey (1970) and is based on the work of Caplan (1966).

(3) Classification according to type of commitment and the various degrees and kinds of knowledge, skill and understanding required. This model was followed by the Aves Committee (1969) and is the one modified for use in this study. The Aves Committee made 3 subsidiary classifications (a) work of a mainly practical kind, (b) work for which special skill or knowledge is required and (c) work involving personal relationships. This latter area was further subdivided into five areas in which personal relationship work might be carried out.

The three models each represent different perspectives. What could be usefully attempted at some stage, would be a synthesis of these models.

What is noticeable about the examples of nonprofessional involvement reported, is that over the last 15 years there has been a marked change in the scope of work undertaken. Whereas reports in the late 1950's indicated that nonprofessionals could make a contribution in the area of practical help in the 1970's, it is observed that there is a heavy emphasis on work in the personal relationship area, and in the policy making area.

The breadth of work the nonprofessional can do has been progressively extended. The reasons for this have already been discussed in Chapter 1. This trend is such that it is now impossible to find in the literature areas of 'helping work' that are carried out exclusively by professionals. The nonprofessional has infiltrated the helping field totally, in terms of task potential. There are still many areas in which development is slow, but such areas are comparatively few. One of the implications of this is that the professional worker is likely to become more and more a consultant to nonprofessionals (Caplan 1970).

A very extensive and exciting collection of papers has been brought together by Guerney (1969) showing the extent to which nonprofessionals have become involved as psychotherapeutic agents. Their involvement and potential is portrayed as unlimited.

Another summary statement, relating to paraprofessionals in counselling centres in United States universities in presented via a Task Force Report (1971). The survey associated with the Task Force study showed that 60% of respondents (respondents totalled 50% of sample) used undergraduates in their counselling service programmes. Tasks ranged through the following areas, crisis centre telephone services, study skills help, drop in centre and peer counselling, general advising and information services, clerical work on research, companion or befriending programmes, leading or co-leading groups, sex and birth-control, counselling relaxation training and desensitization, co-leading communication skills workshops, support services for campus minorities and occupations information assistance.

The Aves Report (1969) gives a summary account of the areas of work being carried out by non-professionals. Even although this Report presents a conservative picture of the scope of work nonprofessionals can undertake, we still find acknowledgement of growing contribution, particularly in the personal relationship area.

The Institute of Applied Economic & Social Research, University of Melbourne survey (1973) on volunteers in social welfare agencies in Victoria sought to ascertain what work volunteers carried out within their agencies. The model used was that of the Ave's Report (See page 42) with five questions each being asked relating to practical tasks, specific skill tasks and counselling tasks. Results indicated that 56%

of voluntary agencies surveyed involved volunteers in practical tasks, 58% involved volunteers in specific skill tasks, and 67% involved volunteers in counselling tasks. A further breakdown of the figures show that the frequency rating on the five tasks was much higher in counselling than in the other two areas. 18 agencies utilised volunteers for 3-5 of the practical tasks outlined, 11 agencies utilised volunteers for 3-5 of the specific skill tasks outlined, and 39 of the agencies utilised volunteers for 3-5 of the counselling tasks outlined. These findings show that overall, agencies involve volunteers in counselling tasks far more than either of the other task categories. The report concludes "This is a significant finding in that it demonstrates that many agencies are aware of the contribution volunteers can make in caring for others through personal relationships.

Too close a comparison of the above study with the study by Rodgers and Dixon (1960) carried out in an English northern town, cannot be made. The indication from part of the English study was that the volunteer in 1960 had a very different function to fulfil than his/her counterpart in Australia in 1973. The differences cannot be attributed to cultural factors. They can be attributed to the changes that were taking place regarding the contribution of the volunteer. The 1960 study reveals an almost total preoccupation with helping through practical tasks.

One of the implications of this broadening of tasks carried out by non-professionals is that it has lead, and is leading to a position of partnership between professional and nonprofessional. The two are different and have their specific contributions to make. It may well be that continuing evolution will see us recognising the nonprofessional as the technologist or craftsman, and operating at a craft level, while the professional offers a professional service. This would not be to suggest one was superior or inferior to the other, as both are necessary. It would recognise different levels of training and expertise. That at least is the situation revealed by literature from overseas. Attention is now turned to the New Zealand scene and in particular Palmerston North to examine what happens in terms of nonprofessional involvement in helping services.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES AND METHODS OF STUDY

1. Aim of the study

As the title of this thesis suggests, the aim of the study was to examine nonprofessional involvement in helping services in Palmerston North. Three specific areas of study were undertaken.

(1) Investigation of the helpers

(2) The nonprofessional contribution

(3) Relationships between professional and nonprofessional helpers.

The aims of the study were embodied in an interactional model. Other studies had concerned themselves with agency orientated issues, or with the personality characteristics of professional and nonprofessional helpers. This study was primarily concerned with relationships between professional and nonprofessional helpers.

2. Limits of the study

(1) The study looked at nonprofessional involvement in helping services. It did not attempt to look at the issue of professional involvement in helping services. The perspective was very much based on what the nonprofessional does to assist the professional, rather than vice-versa. An attempt was made to ascertain the expectations that professionals and nonprofessionals had of each other, but this was expectation rather than actual experience.

(2) No attempt was made to ascertain the official policy of each agency that had nonprofessional workers involved in the study. The aim was to investigate the imvolvement of individuals who become members, or were associated with an agency that had as its primary function offering a helping service.

The same pattern was followed in relation to professional helpers - no official policy statement being sought, but rather the individual workers experience and expectations being investigated. It needs to be

recognised that any attempt to ascertain agency policy would be very difficult, as many agencies do not have a policy as such, or if policy does exist it depends on how it is interpreted by senior officers of agencies.

(3) The study limited itself to investigating organised nonprofessional help. It restricted its self to those members of the community who sought to render some helping service through an established organisation. The study did not attempt to include either "self-help" organisations, e.g. Alcoholics Anonymous, Solo Parents, etc. or those members of the community who may be called on by a professional helper, for assistance, as a known individual, rather than as a member of an agency. One question asked of professional helpers, sought to ascertain if many workers did request assistance from known individuals in the community, as opposed to agencies. Helpers who provide fostering care in the community were not included in the study.

(4) The literature on nonprofessional helpers is expanding rapidly. The subjects of motivation and selection of helpers receives considerable attention. These areas were not covered at all by the present study. The area of training for helpers was considered only minimally.

3. Definition of terms

"Professional Helper"

The term professional is being increasingly used and applied to a growing number of people. By using the phrase professional helper, the aim was to restrict the group being studied to those who were in a helping role. For the purpose of this study, professional helpers were defined as those whose work fell within four disciplines:

(1) Psychology
(2) Social Work
(3) Counselling
(4) Psychiatry.

The reason for deciding on the above group, was that these four disciplines all sought to provide help to maladjusted members of the community as their primary function. The term maladjusted is used in its broadest context, and not just confined to psychological maladjustment.

Because of the primary focus on helping, doctors, clergy and nurses were not included in the study. Doctors and nurses primary function is seen as healing and the primary function of clergy is seen as religious. It is obvious that in the case of the clergy and the doctors and to a lesser extent nurses, these functions are changing, with some members of these groups seeing their primary function as helping with maladjustment.

The criteria for being given the title of professional helper, and therefore included in this study were:-

(1) That the individual was receiving a salary for the work that they were carrying out as a psychologist, counsellor, social worker, or psychiatrist.

(2) That they were functioning within an agency or organisation, which had as its main aim a rehabilitative/remedial/therapeutic function for members of the community needing such. One professional helper was functioning in a private practice capacity, with the main aim, as above.

This is not the traditional definition of the term 'professional'. Definition on the basis of salary and not qualification or other grounds, is open to debate. As the results of the study show, employment in paid helping services is the key factor which unites this group together.

"Nonprofessional Helper"

The term nonprofessional is new to many workers in the field of helping. This was evident from the response received as interviews were carried out. The more commonly accepted term in New Zealand is volunteer. The same may be said for the United Kingdom and Australia. The term nonprofessional has developed from the United States of America. The reason for using the term nonprofessional is that it has a broader connotation than volunteer.

The use of the term volunteer, means that the helper concerned is offering his service in a voluntary capacity. The use of the term nonprofessional provides for the possibility that the helper may be paid for his service, but does not view his work as being professional, does not aspire to professional status, or have a professional training.

In the past the distinction implied by the use of the term volunteer has been between paid and non-paid service. It seems more appropriate that the distinction should be on the basis of professional or nonprofessional service. There is a distinction between the service provided by a professionally qualified worker and a worker who has attended 4 two hour sessions on helping. The introduction of the term "nonprofessional" leaves the way open for such paid workers to assume an important place in the further development of helping services in New Zealand.

Notwithstanding the foregoing, it should be noted, that all nonprofessional helpers selected and interviewed in this study, did in fact offer their service in a voluntary capacity.

Some difficulty was experienced in relation to marriage guidance counsellors. They were included in the nonprofessional sample, but their training, and the nature of the work they do is such, that it was felt necessary to categorise them separately from the remainder of the nonprofessional sample. The results relating to the nonprofessional sample is therefore in two groups, Group A, representing nonprofessionals in several agencies in Palmerston North, and Group B, representing marriage guidance counsellors.

"Helping Services"

Again the use of the phrase "helping services" represents a comparatively new development in New Zealand. The more generally accepted but also more restricted term has been "social services". Social Services have generally been regarded as those services provided to meet social needs and having a 'government service implication'. The social service model has been in contrast to the medical model, although some would say it has relied heavily on the medical model. The use of helping services, implies a new model, which is neither medically or socially based. Drawing on both of these models, and adding to them, it is a public health model.

Helping services selected for this study, were those appearing in the "Directory of Social Service Agencies in Palmerston North". This Directory, published by the Palmerston North City Corporation, includes all agencies in the city which have a human service function.

The selection of professional helpers, was based on those agencies employing professional staff to assist them carrying out their aims and objects. A list of these agencies appears as Appendix I.

The selection of nonprofessional helping agencies could not be arrived at so easily. The first criteria for selection was that an agency included in its aims and objectives a desire to meet human service needs through primarily person to person services. In other words reference was made in the Directory of Social Services to helping people. The following are examples:-

"In circumstances where the support of either parent is no longer available",

"advice and guidance ..... to assist in all matters pertaining to the education, development and advancement of such ....."

"to make available a voluntary service of advice and guidance ....."

"working for the rehabilitation of ....."

"to prevent suicide"

"..... visit the sick and needy and offer whatever help they need"

"is interested in assisting unmarried mothers ....."

" ..... a means by which youth may be helped to solve some of the problems they face"

"..... help the development of good family relationships"

A second criteria was that the nonprofessional helpers joined an organisation, or became associated with an agency which enabled them to make some contribution to the community in line with the first criteria. The selection of agencies listed in Appendix II is based on these criteria. One doubt arose in relation to the Voluntary Driving Service. It was decided that this service provided an essentially "material service", in terms of types of service for the purpose of this study, and that this was its primary function, rather than a person to person service. Hence, it was excluded from the survey.

A further decision made at the outset, was that the study would not involve "self-help" organisations. There are fourteen organisations listed in the Directory of Social Service Agencies (1973) which fall into this category. The reason for this decision was that the study was to attempt to find out what opportunities there were for concerned citizens in the community to link up with a nonprofessional helping agency and then assist professional helpers meet the needs of the community.

Within the helping services, a distinction was made between 'statutory', 'voluntary' and 'private practice'. This latter category was necessary to cover the one professional helper operating in private practice in the city.

The term statutory was applied to those agencies whose funding was derived entirely from tax revenues. This meant that hospitals, government departments and educational institutions were all classified as statutory.

The term voluntary in contrast, referred to those agencies whose funding was derived mainly from voluntary contributions. The use of 'mainly' is important, as some agencies designated as voluntary do receive some funds from government by way of subsidy.

Palmerston North

The area under investigation was Palmerston North, as reflected in the Directory of Social Service Agencies (1973). Many of the agencies carried out their work in outlying areas, e.g. Feilding, Levin, Pahiatua, Woodville, Dannevirke and areas in between. However, all the professional helpers were based in Palmerston North, and with the exception of two people in the nonprofessional sample, all of these were similarly domiciled in Palmerston North. These two were substituted in the sample. (See discussion of respondents)

4. Questionnaires

Two questionnaires were compiled one for the professional helpers, and one for the sample of nonprofessional helpers. Both questionnaires raised construction difficulties.

In the case of the professional helpers, the same questionnaire was being used for psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers and

counsellors - four different groups in terms of tradition, education and function. As it was impossible to cater specifically for these varied orientations, the emphasis was laid on the major groups - the social workers and the counsellors. Obviously such a policy has its limitations, but it also has practical advantages.

The structure in which professional and nonprofessional helpers functioned, also varied considerably and this created problems of questionnaire construction. For example, Samaritans function primarily on a telephone basis and certainly on such a confidential basis as to preclude, to a large extent, any very direct involvement with professional helpers. If contact is to be made, it is usual for this to occur through Samaritan Directors and these people are available in a consultive/ supervisory function. Samaritan Directors did not form part of the sample, as most of them, were at the time of the study, professional helpers in the city, functioning in this additional capacity.

The aims of the questionnaire for professional helpers can be summarised as:

(1) To study certain 'demographic' details of professional helpers.

(2) To ascertain the tasks that professional helpers ask nonprofessional helpers to carry out.

(3) How frequently professional helpers ask nonprofessional helpers for assistance.

(4) What is the relative influence of the agency and the professional helper in deciding on the use of nonprofessional helpers.

(5) What advantages and disadvantages have been found as a result of professional and nonprofessional helpers working together.

(6) What are the expectations of the professional helper in his relationship with nonprofessional helpers.

The aims of the questionnaire for the nonprofessional helpers can be summarised:

(1) To study certain 'demographic' details of nonprofessional helpers.

(2) What tasks do nonprofessional helpers carry out on behalf of professional helpers.

(3) How frequently are nonprofessional helpers asked by professional helpers for assistance with clients.

(4) What tasks do nonprofessional helpers feel capable of carrying out, when the request emanates from a professional helper.

(5) What are the expectations of thenonprofessional helper in his relationship with professional helper.

(6) What advantages and disadvantages have been found of professional and nonprofessional helpers working together.

All the questionnaires were administered by individual personal interviews by the author. Each interview averaged 20 minutes.

The questionnaires were administered to trial samples of professional and nonprofessional helpers and modifications made as a result.

5. Function analysis

The study was primarily concerned with the contribution of the nonprofessional helper. In evaluating this contribution, it was necessary to have some function analysis relating to what the nonprofessional does in detail. The analysis appears in Chapter 6. In arriving at a function analysis, two influences were operating.

The Aves Report (1969) set out the following analysis:

(1) Work of a mainly practical kind

(2) Work for which special knowledge or skill is required

(3) Work involving personal relationships:

- (a) with individuals and their families;
- (b) in residential settings;
- (c) with groups in other settings;
- (d) with those alienated from society;
- (e) in emergency services.

Hamilton-Smith (1973) adopted this analysis.

Sobey (1970) developed a different analysis for her study which was:-

(1) Therapeutic functions

(2) Special skill functions

(3) Community adjustment functions.

After consideration of the above, I decided on a different analysis, which I felt represented the functions of the agencies from which the nonprofessional sample was drawn. This was:-

(1) Providing material assistance (practical help)

(2) Providing befriending/support

(3) Providing advice/guidance

(4) Providing counselling.

The four functions were chosen as they represented progressively, (one through four) greater demands on the part of the nonprofessional helper, in terms of skill and knowledge. It was not possible to determine any progressive demand in terms of time.

In arriving at this analysis, I felt that Sobey's (1970) analysis did not provide for the citizen who had not undergone any special training. All the functions, as Sobey describes them appear to require special knowledge and skill. I believe that many nonprofessional helpers in Palmerston North have not undertaken special training, nor do they want to in terms of making a contribution.

The function analysis used by the Aves Report (1969) comes quite close to what has been used here and represents a major contribution in terms of influence. It was the function described as "work involving personal relationships", which needed to be altered. It seemed that this was too broad a category, and hence the inclusion of 'befriending/support', and 'counselling', as separate functions. There are many nonprofessional helpers who see themselves capable of offering, and actually offering, 'befriending/support', whereas the prospect of 'counselling' would be off putting.

6. Respondents

Attempts were made to interview all professional helpers in Palmerston North. The total interviewed was 75, and at the time of the study there were 77 professional helpers in the city. One was seriously ill and the second was away from the city for an extended period. This meant that there was a 100% response rate to the request for information, and that to all intents and purposes there was a 100% response rate in terms of the total population. It should be noted that some agencies in Palmerston North had vacancies at the time of the study.

The response rate for nonprofessional helpers was very high. Names of all such helpers were obtained from the respective agencies. There was some difficulty with one or two agencies who wished to have assurances that the confidentiality surrounding the identity of nonprofessional helpers would be safeguarded.

A total of 402 names were obtained and it was decided to take a 20% random sample. Names of helpers were listed alphabetically according to agency and every fifth name was selected. Where there was an odd number, those appearing after the last 5th person, were eliminated. Four instances required a change from this system. Two people lived some distance from Palmerston North, one was away overseas and the last one said he was not able to be interviewed due to ill-health. In each case the preceeding name on the list was chosen, although this did not interfere with the already established system of every fifth name being chosen. As with the professional helpers, there were no refusals, so a 100% response rate from the sample was obtained.

From the above it will be clear that as far as professional helpers were concerned, the study was working with a total population, and as far as nonprofessional helpers were concerned, the population studied was a sample (1 in 5). There are some drawbacks in combining a total and sample population in the same study, but the advantages of sample accessibility and time limitation were too great to make a change desirable.

All agencies, both professional and nonprofessional were most co-operative. Contact was made with agencies in the first instance, outlining the study and its aims, asking for lists of helpers (both professional and nonprofessional), and then contact was made with the

individual helpers. The fact that I was known to most agencies and professional helpers, was of considerable assistance in obtaining co-operation.

7. Process Analysis

A system of computer programmes entitled Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (Nie, Bent and Dale 1970), was used in the analysis, which was carried out by the Burroughs B. 6700 installation at Massey University. This system enabled simple frequency distribution tables to be given for variables, and cross-tabulations of selected variables. These cross-tabulations, have not been used to any large extent in the discussion of results, nor have the tables been included in the thesis. The results obtained from them were mainly concerned with analysingfunctions and expectations, in the light of what may be described as the 'demographic factors' i.e. the sex, age, discipline etc. factors. Reporting of this analysis will be made apart from the primary study, submitted here for thesis purposes.

C H A P T E R I V

RESULTS OF SURVEY OF STAFF EMPLOYED IN PROFESSIONAL HELPING SERVICES IN PALMERSTON NORTH

(1) Some Characteristics of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

The questionnaire ascertained information on the following characteristics of professional helpers:

(a) Age

(b) Sex

(c) Employing Agency

(d) Discipline of Helpers

(e) Qualifications

(f) Race

1(a) Age of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 1

Age of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 75)

Age	Number of helpers	%
Under 18	0	0
18 - 21	0	0
22 - 30	20	26.7
31 - 45	36	48.0
46 - 60	16	21.3
60+	3	4.0
Total	75	100

Table 1 reveals that 96% of professional helpers in Palmerston North are aged between 31 and 60. There are no professional helpers under the age of 21.

1(b) Sex of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 2

Sex of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 75)

Sex	Number of helpers	%
Male	39	52.0
Female	36	48.0
Total	75	100

Table 2 reveals that 52% of professional helpers in Palmerston North are male and 48% female.

1(c) Employing Agency of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 3

Employing Agency of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 75)

Type of Agency	Number of helpers	%
Statutory	61	81.4
Voluntary	13	17.3
Private Practice	1	1.3
Total	75	100

Table 3 reveals that 17.3% of professional helpers function in the voluntary sector of helping, with Government or quasi-government services providing over 80% of professional helpers.

1(d) Discipline of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 4

Discipline of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 75)

Discipline	Number of helpers	%
Social Work	40	53.3
Psychiatry	4	5.3
Psychology	8	10.7
Counselling	23	30.7
Total	75	100

Table 4 shows that 84% of professional helpers in Palmerston North are in the social work or counselling disciplines.

1(e) Qualifications of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 5

Qualifications of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 75)

Qualifications	Number of helpers	%
Professional qualifications	30	40.0
Other tertiary qualifications	33	44.0
No qualification	12	16.0
Total	75	100

Table 5 reveals that 60% of professional helpers in Palmerston North do not possess a professional qualification.

1(f) Race of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 6

Race of Professional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 75)

Race	Number of helpers	%
Maori	7	9.3
European	68	90.7
Total	75	100

Table 6 shows that 90.7% of professional helpers in the study were European.

(2) Agency and Worker Factors Associated with Professionals Using Nonprofessionals

The questionnaire sought responses to the following questions associated with professionals using nonprofessionals.

(a) Does your agency encourage the use of nonprofessionals?

(b) Have you used nonprofessionals to assist you carry out your work?

(c) Does the decision to seek nonprofessional help rest with you alone?

(d) What do you think the typical nonprofessional can do best to assist you carry out your work?

(e) How would you evaluate the contribution a nonprofessional could make to the effectiveness of your agency?

(f) How would you evaluate the contribution a nonprofessional could make to your effectiveness as a helper?

(g) What source are you most likely to seek nonprofessional assistance from?

(h) Are nonprofessionals more work than they are worth?

2(a) Agency Encouragement of Use of Nonprofessionals

TABLE 7

Does your Agency Encourage the Use of Nonprofessionals?

(N = 75)

Response	Number of helpers	%
Yes	62	82.7
No	13	17.3
Total	75	100.

Table 7 reveals that 82.7% of professional helpers believe that their agency encourages the use of nonprofessionals.

2(b) Professional Use of Nonprofessionals

TABLE 8

Have you used Nonprofessionals to assist you carry out your work?

(N = 75)

Response	Number of helpers	%
Yes	66	88.0
No	9	12.0
Total	75	100

Table 8 shows that only 12% of the sample have not used Nonprofessionals to help them carry out their work.

2(c) Decision Making in Relation to Seeking Nonprofessional Help

TABLE 9

Does the decision to seek nonprofessional help rest with you alone?

(N = 75)

Response	Number of helpers	%
Yes	51	68.0
No	24	32.0
Total	75	100

Table 9 shows that 68% of the sample make the decision as to whether to involve nonprofessional helpers or not.

2(d) Professionals views of what the nonprofessional can do best

TABLE 10

What do you think the typical nonprofessional can do best to assist you carry out your work?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Provide material assistance (including transport)	21	28.0
Befriending/support	41	54.7
Providing Advice & Guidance	13	17.3
Providing Counselling	0	0
He can't do anything	0	0
Total	75	100

Table 10 reveals that the professional helpers view the typical nonprofessionals best assistance as providing befriending/support (54.7%) followed by material assistance (28.0%), followed by advice and guidance (17.3%). No respondents thought that the best contribution of the typical nonprofessional was in the field of counselling.

2(e) Evaluation of Contribution of Nonprofessional to Effectiveness of Agency

TABLE 11

How would you evaluate the contribution a nonprofessional could make to the effectiveness of your agency?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Very positive	17	22.7
Positive	49	65.3
Neutral	8	10.7
Negative	1	1.3
Very negative	0	0
Total	75	100

Table 11 shows that 78% of the sample felt that the contribution the nonprofessional could make to the effectiveness of the agency was "very positive", or "positive". No respondents felt the contribution of the nonprofessional was "very negative" and only one respondent (1.3%) evaluated the contribution as "negative".

2(f) Evaluation of Contribution of Nonprofessional to Effectiveness of Helper

TABLE 12

How would you evaluate the contribution a nonprofessional could make to your effectiveness as a helper?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Very positive	17	22.7
Positive	50	66.7
Neutral	7	9.3
Negative	1	1.3
Very negative	0	0
Total	75	100

An almost identical picture emerges from Table 11 and Table 12.

2(g) Source of Nonprofessional Assistance

TABLE 13

What source are you most likely to seek nonprofessional assistance from ?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
An Agency	30	40.0
A person known to you within an agency	33	44.0
A personal contact	4	5.3
Other	0	0
Don't Ask	8	10.7
Total	75	100

Table 13 reveals that 49.3% of the sample sought nonprofessional assistance from someone who was known to them, while 40% sought assistance from an agency.

2(h) Nonprofessionals their work demands and their worth

TABLE 14

Are nonprofessionals more work than they are worth

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	3	2.7
Usually	6	8.0
Sometimes	21	28.0
No	45	60.0
Total	75	100

Table 14 reveals that 60% of the sample did not view nonprofessionals as being more work than they are worth. The remaining 40% expressed varying degrees of reservation concerning the amount of work involved. The two most negative responses, "Yes" "Usually", drew a combined response of 10.7% with 28% of the sample responding to "Sometimes".

(3) Frequency of Professional Helpers Asking Nonprofessional Helpers for Assistance

In an attempt to ascertain the frequency of requests for assistance, five questions were asked, the first dealing with the last time a request was made for help and the remaining four with frequency of asking for help in the four categories of assistance designated in the survey.

3(a) Last Time Nonprofessional Assistance Requested

TABLE 15

When was the last time you asked a nonprofessional helper to help you with a client (make a referral) ?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Within the past week	32	42.6
1 - 4 weeks	17	22.7
1 - 6 months	14	18.7
Over 6 months	3	4.0
Never	9	12.0
Total	75	100

Table 15 shows a high frequency of use of nonprofessionals, 42.7% of professional helpers using a nonprofessional helper in the past week. 65.4% of professionals had used a nonprofessional in the past 4 weeks.

3(b) Frequency of asking nonprofessionals to provide material assistance

TABLE 16

How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide material assistance?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Frequently	11	14.7
Sometimes	44	58.6
Never	20	26.7
Total	75	100

3(c) Frequency of asking nonprofessional to provide befriending/give support

TABLE 17

How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide befriending/give support?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Frequently	18	24.0
Sometimes	46	61.3
Never	11	14.7
Total	75	100

3(d) Frequency of asking nonprofessionals to provide advice and guidance

TABLE 18

How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide advice and guidance?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Frequently	9	12.0
Sometimes	42	56.0
Never	24	32.0
Total	75	100

3(e) Frequency of asking nonprofessionals to provide counselling

TABLE 19

How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide counselling?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Frequently	2	2.7
Sometimes	27	36.0
Never	46	61.3
Total	75	100.

An analysis of Tables 16, 17, 18 and 19 shows the following pattern. The assistance that professionals seek from nonprofessionals most "frequently", is befriending and support (24% of sample). Counselling assistance is "frequently" sought by only 2.7% of the sample.

Analysis of the "sometimes" category of requests reveals that befriending and support, material assistance, and advice and guidance are all requested by similar proportions of the sample; 61.3%, 58.7% and 56% respectively. The request for counselling "sometimes" is lower at 36%.

Perhaps the most significant response is that to the **"never"** category - i.e. no requests are made by professionals to nonprofessionals for assistance. As would be expected from the foregoing, 61.3% of the sample "never" request a nonprofessional to provide counselling. 32% "never" request advice and guidance. 26.7% "never" request material assistance and 14.7% "never" request befriending and support.

(4) Expectations of Professional Helpers Asking Nonprofessional Helpers for Assistance

The following questions were asked in the questionnaire, in an attempt to ascertain some of the expectations professional helpers have when they request nonprofessional assistance.

(a) When you ask for nonprofessional assistance, do you expect to continue overall responsibility?

(b) When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to be kept informed of progress?

(c) When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to be contacted only if there is a crisis?

(d) When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to provide some form of supervision?

(e) Have you used as a nonprofessional helper, someone whom you have known to have received professional assistance from your Agency?

(f) Would you use as a nonprofessional helper someone who you knew had received professional assistance from your Agency?

4(a) Professional's expectations regarding overall responsibility

TABLE 20

When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to continue overall responsibility?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	51	68.0
No	17	22.7
Don't Ask	7	9.3
Total	75	100

Table 20 shows that 68% of the sample expect to continue overall responsibility when they request nonprofessional assistance.

4(b) Professional's expectations regarding being kept informed of progress

TABLE 21

When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to be kept informed of progress?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	51	68.0
No	17	22.7
Don't Ask	7	9.3
Total	75	100

The results revealed in Table 20 and Table 21 are the same, indicating that those who expect to continue overall responsibility also expect to be kept informed of progress.

4(c) Professional's expectations regarding contact if there is a crisis

TABLE 22

When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to be only contacted if there is a crisis?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	14	18.7
No	54	72.0
Don't ask	7	9.3
Total	75	100

The results of Table 22 reveal that 72% of the sample did not see themselves offering a "back-up" "crisis support service" having asked the nonprofessional for assistance.

4(d) Professional's expectations regarding the Provision of supervision

TABLE 23

When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to provide some form of supervision?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	35	46.7
No	33	44.0
Don't Ask	7	9.3
Total	75	100

The results of Table 23 show a marked divergence from the pattern of responses to the three earlier questions.

The sample was almost evenly divided on the expectation of providing some form of supervision for nonprofessionals.

4(e) Use of nonprofessionals who have themselves received professional assistance

TABLE 24

Have you used as a nonprofessional helper, someone whom you have known to have received professional assistance from your Agency?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	30	40.0
No	45	60.0
Total	75	100

Table 24 and Table 25 (following) need to be considered together. 60% of professional helpers have not used someone that they have known to have received professional assistance. However only 2.7% of the sample (Table 25) said they would not use such a person. 60% expressed reservations about possible use.

4(f) Expected use of nonprofessionals who have themselves received professional assistance

TABLE 25

Would you use as a nonprofessional helper someone who you knew had received professional assistance from your Agency?

(N = 75)

	Number of helpers	%
Yes	28	37.3
Maybe	45	60.0
No	2	2.7
Total	75	100

(5) Advantages and Disadvantages of Working with a Nonprofessional

Two open-ended questions were asked:

(a) what are the advantages you have found of working with a non-professional, and

(b) what are the disadvantages you have found of working with a non-professional.

Responses were recorded and classified after all respondents had been interviewed.

5(a) Advantages of working with a nonprofessional

TABLE 26

What are the advantages you have found of working with a nonprofessional?

	Number of helpers	%
No advantages	2	2.7
No experience of working with a nonprofessional	7	9.3
They are available	28	37.3
They have resources available (material)	15	20.0
They are not an authority figure/ not attached to government agency	29	38.7
Their specific orientation to one problem e.g. Single Mothers, Group, enables them to be particularly helpful	11	14.7
They can offer friendship/personal relationship/they are closer to client	32	42.7
They have enthusiasm/motivation	11	14.7
They lighten my load and enable me to specialise	13	17.3
Their contribution helps to involve the community	12	16.0

Table 26 reveals that professional helpers have found 3 main areas of advantage in working with nonprofessionals. With a 42.7% response, the offering of friendship and a personal relationship with client was seen to be the greatest advantage. Closely allied to this although clearly

different, was the 38.7% response to nonprofessionals not being an authority figure, not being attached to a government agency and not being professional. This was followed by 37.3% of the sample feeling that the availability of nonprofessionals was an advantage.

Analysis reveals that 151 responses were made to this open-ended question. If the number of professionals who reported no experience (7) and those who had found no advantage (5) are deducted an average number of advantages reported is almost 2.5%.

5(b) Disadvantages of working with a nonprofessional

TABLE 27

What are the disadvantages you have found of working with a nonprofessional?

	Number of helpers	%
No disadvantage	5	6.7
No Experience of working with a nonprofessional	7	9.3
They become over-involved/are let down when client rejects them emotionally	22	29.3
They are easily manipulated	7	9.3
They may not know their own limits/over enthusiasm	18	24.0
Lack of confidentiality	9	12.0
They receive no supervision and therefore there is no opportunity for on going learning	8	10.7
They don't understand how the professional works and why	14	18.7
They are time consuming of the professional	8	10.7
They tend to have unrealistic expectations of professional or agency	6	8.0
They have problems of their own/identify with clients/meet own needs through clients	12	16.0
They can't accept deviance/are prejudiced	5	6.7
Communication problems professional/ nonprofessional exist	6	8.0
Other	13	17.3

Table 27 shows that there were two disadvantages which a quarter of the sample had found. These were the over-involvement of nonprofessional helpers and the resultant disappointment when the client did not respond as expected (29.3%), and the fact that nonprofessionals may not know their own limits, being carried away by over-enthusiasm (24.0%). An inability to understand how the professional works and why, was reported by 18.7% of the sample to be a disadvantage. 16% had found the personal problems of the nonprofessional helpers, in that they lead to identification, or meeting their own needs through clients to be a disadvantage.

The total number of disadvantages reported were 128, representing an average of 2 disadvantages reported by each professional helper (apart from those with no experience or reporting no disadvantages.) This compares with 2.5 advantages reported, as referred to in the comments on Table 26.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS OF SURVEY OF SAMPLE OF NONPROFESSIONAL HELPERS IN PALMERSTON NORTH

The results in this chapter are divided into two sub-groups. (A) representing nonprofessional helpers in a number of agencies, and (B) representing marriage guidance counsellors only. Combined totals are given in addition to sub-group totals. Discussion of this type of presentation appears in Chapter 4.

(1) Some Characteristics of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

The questionnaire ascertained information on the following characteristics of nonprofessional helpers.

(a) Age
(b) Sex
(c) Type of agency associated with
(d) Race
(e) Formal qualifications
(f) Attendance at "Helping" course

1(a) Age of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 28

Age of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 76)

Age	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Under 18	0	0	0	0
18 - 21	3	0	3	3.9
22 - 30	8	0	8	10.5
31 - 45	22	6	28	36.8
46 - 60	29	4	33	43.5
60 +	4	0	4	5.3
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 28 reveals that 85.6% of the sample were aged 31 or over, with 14.4% being under 30.

1(b) Sex of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 29

Sex of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 76)

Sex	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Male	31	3	34	44.7
Female	35	7	42	55.3
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 29 shows that the sample of nonprofessional helpers in Palmerston North are almost equally divided, male and female.

1(c) Type of Agency Associated With

TABLE 30

Type of Agency Associated With

(N = 76)

Agency	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Statutary	3	0	3	3.9
Voluntary	63	10	73	96.1
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 30 reveals that the overwhelming majority (96.1%) of nonprofessional helpers in the sample link up with a voluntary agency, to do their helping.

1(d) Race of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 31

Race of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

(N = 76)

Race	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Maori	1	0	1	1.3
European	65	10	75	98.7
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 31 reveals that there was only one Maori in the sample.

1(e) Formal Education of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 32

Formal Education Since Leaving School

(N = 76)

Formal Education	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	26	9	35	46.1
No	40	1	41	53.9
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 32 reveals that 39.4% of Group A have had formal education since leaving school, compared with 90% of Group B. 46.1% of the total sample have had formal education since leaving school.

1(f) Attendance of "Helping" Courses of Nonprofessional Helpers in Palmerston North

TABLE 33

Attendance at courses designed specifically to assist effectiveness as nonprofessional helper

(N = 76)

Attendance	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	33	10	43	56.6
No	33	0	33	43.4
Total	66	10	75	100

Table 33 reveals that Group A are equally divided in terms of having attended or not having attended a course to help their effectiveness. Group B offers a training programme as a pre-requisite to offering service and this accounts for 100% response for having attended a course.

(2) The Nonprofessional Helper in Palmerston North -

What should he do?
What can he do?
What does he do?

The questionnaire sought responses to the following questions:-

(a) Do you think nonprofessionals should help professionals carry out their work with clients?

(b) Do you think nonprofessionals are capable of helping professionals carry out their work with clients?

(c) What do you think you as a nonprofessional helper can do best to help people in need?

(d) If requested by a professional to provide material assistance to one of his clients, would you feel capable to doing this?

(e) If requested by a professional to provide befriending/support to one of his clients, would you feel capable of doing this?

(f) If requested by a professional to provide advice/guidance to one of his clients, would you feel capable of doing this?

(g) If requested by a professional to provide counselling to one of his clients, would you feel capable of doing this?

(h) If a professional asks for help with one of his clients what is he most likely to want you to do?

(i) What would you most like professionals to ask you to do to assist with their clients?

(j) How would you evaluate the contribution the typical nonprofessional makes in assisting professionals with their clients?

2(a) Nonprofessionals help for Professionals

TABLE 34

Do you think nonprofessionals should help professionals carry out their work with clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	36	7	43	56.6
Sometimes	27	3	30	39.5
No	3	0	3	3.9
Total	66	10	76	100

With over 43.0% of the sample saying "No" or "Sometimes" to helping professionals with their clients, there is a considerable body of the sample expressing doubts or rejecting the concept of nonprofessional assistance.

2(b) Capability of Nonprofessionals to Assist Professionals with Their Clients

TABLE 35

Do you think nonprofessionals are capable of helping professionals carry out their work with clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	33	4	37	48.7
Sometimes	33	6	39	51.3
No	0	0	0	0
Total	66	10	76	100

Results from Table 35 indicate that the sample is almost evenly divided in terms of nonprofessionals saying "Yes" to feeling capable of assisting, or "Sometimes" feeling capable.

Comparison with table 34 indicates that 56% of the sample feel that nonprofessionals should assist professionals with their clients, but only 48.7% of the sample feel that nonprofessionals are capable of such assistance.

2(c) Skills of Nonprofessional Helpers

TABLE 36

What do you think you as a Nonprofessional Helper can do best to help people in need?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Provide Material Assistance	11	0	11	14.5
Provide Befriending Support	40	1	41	53.9
Provide Advice/ Guidance	12	0	12	15.8
Provide Counselling	3	9	12	15.8
Total	66	10	76	100

The results from Table 36 reveal that 53.9% of the sample see their main contribution as being in the area of befriending and support. If groups A and B are analysed further, it is found that 60.6% of Group A see their main contribution as being befriending and support. The 15.8% response to counselling being the most effective contribution needs to be further analysed. Group B, have a response rate of 90% for counselling being the most effective contribution. This is understandable as marriage guidance counsellors (Group B) are taught that their role is a counselling one and this is what their training equips them for. If allowance is made for this, only 4.5% of Group B see their most effective contribution as being counselling.

The 18.2% response of Group A to the advisory/guidance role is a reflection of a particular agency (Manawatu Home Budgeting Service).

2(d) Felt Capability of Nonprofessionals to provide material assistance

TABLE 37

If requested by a professional to provide material assistance to one of his clients, would you feel capable of doing this?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	63	8	71	93.4
No	3	2	5	6.6
Total	66	10	76	100

2(e) Felt Capability of Nonprofessionals to Provide Befriending/Support

TABLE 38

If requested by a professional to provide befriending/support to one of his clients, would you feel capable of doing this?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	62	10	72	94.7
No	4	0	4	5.3
Total	66	10	76	100

2(f) Felt Capability of Nonprofessionals to Provide Advice/Guidance

TABLE 39

If requested by a professional to provide advice and guidance to one of his clients would you feel capable of doing this?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	52	7	59	77.6
No	14	3	17	22.4
Total	66	10	76	100

2(g) Felt Capability of Nonprofessionals to Provide Counselling

TABLE 40

If requested by a professional to provide counselling to one of his clients, would you feel capable of doing this?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	29	10	39	51.3
No	37	0	37	48.7
	66	10	76	100

Tables 37, 38, 39 and 40 show that the sample of nonprofessionals in Palmerston North feel they can best offer befriending/support (94.7%) and material assistance (93.4%). There is then a drop to 77.6% feeling capable of offering advice and guidance, and a further drop to 51.3% feeling they can offer counselling.

48.7% of the sample felt incapable of offering counselling, if requested to do so. There were no respondents from Group B feeling incapable, which means that 56.1% of Group A felt incapable and 43.9% felt capable.

2(h) Type of Assistance Requested by Professionals

TABLE 41

If a professional asks for help with one of his clients, what is he most likely to want you to do?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Provide material assistance	5	0	5	6.6
Provide Befriending/Support	13	1	14	18.4
Provide Advice/Guidance	7	0	7	9.2
Provide Counselling	2	5	7	9.2
Not been asked	39	4	43	56.6
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 41 shows that 56.6% of the sample have not been asked by a professional for assistance. Of those who have been asked, the most frequent request for assistance is with befriending and support (18.4%) The requests for advice and guidance (9.2%) and the requests for counselling (9.2%) represent in the large part two agencies whose specialist functions are in these areas.

2(i) Type of Assistance Nonprofessionals Desire To Be Asked For

TABLE 42

What would you most like professionals to ask you to do to assist with their clients

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Provide material assistance	8	0	8	10.5
Provide befriending/ support	36	0	36	47.4
Provide advice/ guidance	14	0	14	18.4
Provide counselling	7	10	17	22.4
Prefer them not to ask	1	0	1	1.3
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 42 shows that 47.4% of the sample wish to be asked to provide befriending and support. The percentage for Group A is 54.5%. Those who desire to be asked to provide counselling represent 22.4% of the sample. However, Group B have a 100% desire to be asked to provide counselling, as can be expected, which leaves 10.6% of Group A desiring to be asked to provide counselling. 12.1% of Group A desire to be asked to provide material assistance.

It is not possible to make a comparison between Table 41 and Table 42 because of the large number of nonprofessionals who have not been asked for help by a professional.

2(j) Evaluation of Nonprofessional Contribution

TABLE 43

How would you evaluate the contribution the typical nonprofessional makes in assisting professionals with their clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Very positive	11	1	12	15.8
Positive	50	9	59	77.6
Neutral	4	0	4	5.3
Negative	1	0	1	1.3
Very negative	0	0	0	0
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 43 shows that over 93% of the sample see the typical nonprofessionals assistance as "positive" or "very positive".

(3) Frequency of Professional Helpers Asking Nonprofessional Helpers for Assistance

The questionnaire ascertained responses to the following questions on frequency of use:-

(a) When was the last time you were asked by a professional worker to help with a client, either personally, or through your agency?

(b) How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide material assistance for clients?

(c) How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide befriending/support for clients?

(d) How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide advice/ guidance for clients?

(e) How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide counselling for clients?

3(a) Last Time Nonprofessional Assistance Requested

TABLE 44

When was the last time you were asked by a professional worker to help with a client, either personally, or through your agency?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Within past week	4	2	6	7.8
1 - 4 weeks	4	1	5	6.6
1 - 6 months	10	1	11	14.5
Over 6 months	9	2	11	14.5
Never	39	4	43	56.6
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 44 shows that 56.6% of the sample had never been asked to help a professional with a client and that a further 14.5% had not been asked for over 6 months. 29% of the sample had had a request in the previous 6 months.

3(b) Frequency of Requests to Provide Material Assistance

TABLE 45

How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide material assistance for clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Frequently	1	0	1	1.3
Sometimes	13	0	13	17.1
Never	52	10	62	81.6
Total	66	10	76	100

3(c) Frequency of Requests to Provide Befriending/Support

TABLE 46

How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide befriending/support for clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Frequently	2	0	2	2.6
Sometimes	20	2	22	28.9
Never	44	8	52	68.5
Total	66	10	76	100

3(d) Frequency of Requests to Provide Advice/Guidance

TABLE 47

How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide advice/guidance for clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Frequently	4	1	5	6.6
Sometimes	9	2	11	14.5
Never	53	7	60	78.9
Total	66	10	76	100

3(e) Frequency of Requests to Provide Counselling

TABLE 48

How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide counselling for clients?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Frequently	0	3	3	3.9
Sometimes	5	2	7	9.2
Never	61	5	66	86.9
Total	66	10	76	100

Tables 45, 46, 47 and 48 reveal a similar pattern of requests for assistance. 81.6% (material assistance) 68.4% (befriending/support) 78.9% (advice/guidance) and 86.8% (counselling) of the sample have had no such requests. The highest frequency rating was for advice and guidance with 6.6%. 28.9% of the sample indicated that they "sometimes" received requests, for befriending and support compared with 17.1% for material assistance, 14.5% for advice and guidance and 9.2% for counselling.

(4) The Nonprofessionals Expectations of the Professional

The questionnaire ascertained responses to the following questions:-

(a) When you are asked by a professional for assistance with a client, do you expect him to continue overall responsibility?

(b) When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect to keep him informed of progress?

(c) When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect to contact him only if there is a crisis?

(d) When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect him to provide some form of supervision?

4(a) Nonprofessionals expectations regarding overall responsibility

TABLE 49

When you are asked by a professional for assistance with a client, do you expect him to continue overall responsibility?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	13	0	13	17.1
Sometimes	12	4	16	21.1
No	1	2	3	3.9
Not asked	40	4	44	57.9
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 49 indicates, that of those asked to help a professional's client, the majority expect, if not always, then certainly sometimes, for the professional to continue overall responsibility.

4(b) Nonprofessionals Expectations Regarding Keeping Professional Informed

TABLE 50

When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect to keep him informed of progress?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	20	4	24	31.6
Sometimes	5	1	6	7.9
No	1	1	2	2.6
Not asked	40	4	44	57.9
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 50 shows that of those who have been asked to assist 73% expect to keep the professional informed of progress, while a further 20% would expect to keep the professional informed "sometimes".

4(c) Nonprofessionals Expectations Regarding Contact if There is a Crisis

TABLE 51

When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect to contact him only if there is a crisis?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	3	0	3	3.9
Sometimes	1	0	1	1.3
No	22	6	28	36.8
Not asked	40	4	44	58.0
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 51 reveals that only 5.2% of the sample see contact with the referring professional, to be occasioned by a crisis.

4(d) Nonprofessionals Expectations Regarding Professional Providing Supervision

TABLE 52

When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect him to provide some form of supervision?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	8	0	8	10.5
Sometimes	8	2	10	13.2
No	10	4	14	18.4
Not asked	40	4	44	57.9
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 52 shows that of those who are asked for help, 25% expect supervision, 31% sometimes expect supervision and 43% don't expect supervision.

(5) The Nonprofessionals Relationship with the Professional

The following questions were asked in the area of professional/ nonprofessional relationships:-

(a) If a client requests help from you, do you ask them if they have seen, or are seeing a professional helper ?

(b) If a professional was involved and you wanted to contact them, would you ask your client if this was O.K.?

(c) Do you prefer to assist people who are not being helped by a professional?

(d) Do you think professionals encourage and support nonprofessionals enough?

(e) Do you think professionals understand nonprofessionals?

(f) From what source are you most likely to receive a request for nonprofessional assistance with a client?

5(a) Ascertaining from client, if any professional involvement

TABLE 53

If a client requests help from you, do you ask them if they have seen, or are seeing a professional helper?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	32	3	35	46.1
Sometimes	29	7	36	47.4
No	5	0	5	6.5
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 53 shows that 47.4% of respondents felt they would ask if a professional had or was involved "sometimes". 46.1% had no doubt about asking such a question while 6.5% felt they would not ask the question.

5(b) Obtaining Client Permission to Contact Professional Helper

TABLE 54

If a professional was involved and you wanted to contact them would you ask your client if this was O.K.?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	37	10	47	61.9
Sometimes	21	0	21	27.6
No	8	0	8	10.5
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 54 shows that 61.8% of respondents would ask for the permission of the client before contacting a professional. A further 27.6% would ask "sometimes" and 10.5% would not ask. With 38.1% of respondents having doubts about asking for permission, or deciding not to this means slightly more than one in three. The 100% response "yes" of Group B is a reflection of the training programme of marriage guidance counsellors which places a heavy emphasis on such behaviour.

5(c) Preferences regarding helping a client when a professional helper is involved

TABLE 55

Do you prefer to assist people who are not being helped by a professional?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	13	2	15	19.7
Sometimes	16	3	19	25.0
No	37	5	42	55.3
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 55 shows that 19.7% of the sample preferred to work with a client who was not involved with a professional helper at the same time, while a further 25% felt they "sometimes" preferred it this way.

5(d) Professional's Understanding of Nonprofessionals?

TABLE 56

Do you think professionals understand nonprofessionals?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	17	2	19	25.0
Some do	48	8	56	73.7
No	1	0	1	1.3
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 56 shows that 73.7% of the sample felt that "some" professionals understand nonprofessionals while 25% were satisfied with the level of understanding that exists.

5(e) Professional's encouragement and support of Nonprofessionals

TABLE 57

Do you think Professionals encourage and support Nonprofessionals enough?

(N = 76)

Responses	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
Yes	16	2	18	23.7
Some do	37	7	44	57.9
No	13	1	14	18.4
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 57 shows that 76.3% of the sample felt that not enough support was given while 23.7% were satisfied with the level of support and encouragement that was provided.

5(f) Source of Requests for Assistance

TABLE 58

From what source are you most likely to receive a request for Nonprofessional assistance with a client?

(N = 76)

Response	Number of Helpers			%
	Group A	Group B	Total	
An agency	18	3	21	27.6
A person known to you within an agency	9	3	12	15.8
A personal contact	0	0	0	0
Not asked	39	4	43	56.6
Other	0	0	0	0
Total	66	10	76	100

Table 58 shows that 56.6% of the sample have not been asked by a professional to assist with a client. 27.6% of the sample are most likely to receive their request for assistance from an "agency", and 15.8% from "a person known to you within an agency".

(6) Advantages and Disadvantages of Working with a Professional

Two open-ended questions were asked, firstly:

(a) What are the advantages you have found of working with a professional?

and secondly:

(b) What are the disadvantages you have found of working with a professional?

Responses were recorded and classified after all respondents had been interviewed.

6(a) Advantages of working with a professional

TABLE 59

What are the advantages you have found of working with a professional?
(N = 76)

	Number of Helpers			
	Group A	Group B	Total	%
I can learn from their experience and knowledge	44	8	52	68.4
Working together benefits the client	12	1	13	17.1
They give support/encouragement/ reassurance	10	3	13	17.1
They have resources (material)	4	0	4	5.3
They have authority/I can pass on responsibility	3	2	5	6.6
They are specialists in their particular field	8	1	9	11.8
Have not found any	2	0	2	2.6
No experience	9	0	9	11.8
Other	2	0	2	2.6

Table 59 reveals that 68.4% of the sample find the main advantage of working with professionals to be the opportunity of learning from their experience. The benefits to the client from working together and the support given by professionals, both record figures of 17.1%.

6(b) Disadvantages of working with a professional

TABLE 60

What are the disadvantages you have found of working with a professional?

(N = 76)

	Number of Helpers			
	Group A	Group B	Total	%
They are too aloof/professional/ not personal enough and this removes them from clients	19	1	20	26.3
They are too theoretical/too academic, not practical enough	12	0	12	15.8
They act superior/I feel inferior	16	4	20	26.3
They undervalue the/nonprofessional and his usefulness/don't involve enough/don't support enough	19	2	21	27.6
They are too much tied up with bureaucratic red tape/ authority figure	5	1	6	7.9
Other	5	2	7	9.2
No experience	11	1	12	15.8
Havenot found any	7	2	9	11.8

Table 60 reveals three areas of disadvantage with similar response rates. "Too professional", "superior/inferior in feelings", and "don't involve enough", have respectively 26.3%, 26.3% and 27.6%. 15.8% of the sample saw professionals as being too theoretical.

The total number of advantages reported were 83, representing an average of 1.25 advantages reported by nonprofessionals (apart from those with no experience or reporting no advantages. The total number of disadvantages was 76, representing again, an average of 1.25.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Discussion of the results of the survey will be in three sections:-

(1) The helpers

(2) The nonprofessional contribution
   (a) The use made of nonprofessionals.
   (b) Nonprofessional contributions.
   (c) Frequency of nonprofessional contributions.

(3) Relationships between professional and nonprofessional helpers
   (a) Professional and nonprofessional helpers working together.
   (b) Expectations professional and nonprofessional helpers have of each other.
   (c) Advantages and disadvantages of professional and nonprofessional helpers working together.

(1) The Helpers

Tables 1 and 28 present the ages of helpers in Palmerston North who were surveyed. The results indicate that the majority of helpers are aged between 31 and 60, 69.3% of professionals and 80.3% of nonprofessionals, appearing in this age range. It is interesting to note that a little over one quarter (26.7%) of the professional sample were in the 22-30 age range. This comparatively high proportion represents what I believe is a more enlightened selection policy on the part of some agencies, particularly state agencies. In the past many recruits to helping services, particularly those without professional training, have been chosen on the ground of "maturity" amongst other criteria. Maturity has frequently been equated with physical age (as it is on many occasions), and this has meant an older initial recruitment age to helping. This concept of maturity has shifted. Another factor influencing older appointment in social work, has been the tendency to qualify in one field, e.g. nursing, teaching, practice for a few years and then transfer to social work. Austin (1971) in a New Zealand Department of Health survey found that the median age on appointment as a medical social worker was 40 years. The results of this survey would indicate younger

appointments are being made.

It is disturbing to find no professional helpers under the age of 22 and only 3.9% of nonprofessional helpers in this age range. This could be accounted for as far as professionals are concerned by the fact that many under this age are still in training. A high proportion of the clientele of helping services are under the age of 22. The material referred to in Chapters 1 and 2 indicate the positive contribution of peer counselling, particularly among the young. Helping agencies in Palmerston North, with the exception of Youthline seem to have difficulty in recruiting young people, and this is in contrast to what most workers involved with young people report, namely considerable idealism and commitment to a service and helping ethic. My experience as student counsellor at Massey University has convinced me that there are many young students who wish to make a contribution to helping individuals and communities. The present results would indicate that agencies have not tapped this manpower resource. The reasons for this could be the subject of another study.

Tables 2 and 29 show the sex ratio of helpers in Palmerston North. Of the total respondents 78 are female and 73 are male. There is a higher proportion of females in the nonprofessional group (55.3%) compared with the professional group (48.0%). These figures dispel the oft quoted myth that nonprofessional helping is essentially carried out by females - a myth which is not supported by the literature. A survey of voluntary workers in Liverpool for example (Liverpool University 1967) found that 'women do not greatly predominate'. Portsmouth College of Technology (1965) carried out a study and found that among those claiming to be doing voluntary work, the balance of the sexes was practically equal. Two other studies, however, The Institute of Community Studies (1967) and Manchester and Salford Council of Social Service and Manchester Youth and Community Service (1967), found 3 female volunteers to every male volunteer. The present results support the first two studies.

In looking at the professional helpers, it is interesting to note that there are no female psychiatrists or psychologists practicing as helpers in Palmerston North. These fields have been much more the traditional preserve of men. Social work and counselling provide an interesting comparison of employment of males and females. In one field - medical social work - Austin (1971) found that only 3 out of 116 social

workers were male. In contrast, the State Services Classification List for social workers in the Department of Social Welfare (the largest employer of social workers in New Zealand) (1973) showed 181 male social workers and 193 female social workers. A survey conducted by the New Zealand Association of Social Workers (1970) showed that out of 519 respondents (approximately 80% of members), 311 (60%) were female and 208 (40%) male. Membership of the Association is open to all practicing social workers, irrespective of agency employed by. To quote an example from counselling, all students selected for the first intake to the Diploma in Educational Guidance and Counselling at Massey University in 1974 were male. What the foregoing appears to indicate is a pattern of male/female employment, determined primarily by the type of agency worked for. Some bias towards males in psychology and psychiatry is indicated. There seems to be overall a balance in social work, and this is reflected in the results of the present study, though there is some evidence that balance/non-balance is agency or work area specific.

Tables 3 and 30 show the type of agency that helpers are associated with, and should be read with reference to the discussion on the use of 'statutory' and 'voluntary' to describe agencies given in Chapter 4. Table 3 shows that 81.4% of professional respondents work for a statutory agency. In contrast only 3.9% of nonprofessional helpers (as shown in Table 30) make their contribution through liaison with a statutory agency. 96.1% of nonprofessional helpers are associated with voluntary agencies, either those offering both a professional and nonprofessional service, or those offering only a nonprofessional service. This reflects the findings of the survey by Hamilton-Smith (1973) in Victoria, Australia. She found that overall the professionals in voluntary agencies tended to use more volunteers than did the professionals in statutory agencies.

The Department of Social Welfare has statutory provision for the use of nonprofessionals, in the form of Honorary Social Workers, but this provision is only rarely used in most districts. In Palmerston North at the time of the survey, there were only two honorary social workers. The Maori and Island Affairs Department also has statutory provision for Maori Wardens and Honorary Maori Welfare Officers. Again extensive use is not made of such nonprofessionals, only two honorary Maori welfare officers being appointed at the time of the survey and 9 wardens. It would appear that nonprofessionals have become aware that their contribution is most

likely to be welcomed by professionals in voluntary agencies, rather than by professionals in statutory ones, and make their offers accordingly. It is interesting to note Table 26 in this respect which shows that 38.7% of professional respondents viewed the nonprofessionals freedom from being an authority figure and not attached to a government agency, as an advantage. This may suggest that professionals feel nonprofessionals should keep clear of being associated with a statutory agency.

Table 4 shows the discipline of helpers, in line with the schedule discussed in Chapter 4. Social work with 53.3% of professional respondents is the major discipline. When it is recognised that a number of those in counselling positions have a training in social work the proportion is higher.

The results in Table 5 on qualifications of professional helpers, while not unexpected is disturbing. 40% of the sample hold professional qualifications, 44% other tertiary qualifications and 16% no qualifications. Cross tabulation of discipline and qualifications revealed that the psychologists and psychiatrists were almost entirely professionally qualified. It was in the fields of social work and counselling that a high proportion were not qualified to undertake the work they were doing. The results as mentioned, were not unexpected. Levett (1970) in a survey of social work in New Zealand, said that only 10% of all social workers have a university qualification in social work.

A survey, (New Zealand Association of Social Workers 1970) drawing an 80% response rate from all members of N.Z.A.S.W. showed that 22% had a university qualification in social work. This figure while well in excess of that quoted by Levett (1970), is explained by two factors. Firstly, not all social workers are members of the Association and secondly it may be reasonably expected that those with professional qualifications will want to join a professional association. This will provide for on-going stimulus. Those without professional qualifications it can be assumed will not have the same degree of motivation. Hence the N.Z.A.S.W. survey reports a higher proportion of social workers with professional qualifications than is reflected in Levett's figures, or in the present study.

Social work, throughout the western world has traditionally been an untrained or undertrained profession. Reference has been made in

Chapter 4 to this and particularly to the chief reason for it, namely that social work has developed out of voluntary effort and therefore from the notion that anyone with a kind heart can be a social worker. The position is changing in New Zealand, but it will be some years before different results from those found in Table 5 can be expected.

Table 33 shows figures relating to nonprofessionals having attended a course on "helping". This question was asked to ascertain what if any preparation was undertaken prior to offering nonprofessional help. Obviously some agencies would encourage, even require attendance at a course, while others don't see this as necessary. Marriage guidance counsellors are required to undergo an extensive period of training and therefore they have a 100% response rate. Other nonprofessionals (Group A) are equally divided in terms of having attended a course. The Aves Report (1969) concluded their section on training by saying "we suggest that everyone, not only those who help in the social services should have increased opportunities to learn about human needs and the services that exist to meet them". In addition they suggest training programmes which are agency orientated, and which build on the above opportunities.

Arguments have been put forward to suggest that training courses may not be advantageous and the Aves Report (1969) and Barr (1971) summarise these arguments.

The survey by Hamilton-Smith (1973) while agency based, rather than individual based, allows some crude comparison between the State of Victoria and Palmerston North. Hamilton-Smith found that 49% of voluntary agencies did not specify mandatory training and that 57% did not provide an orientation programme. The present study's results of 56.6% having been to a training programme and 43.4% not having been, seem to reflect a generally, similar picture.

Table 32 sought to ascertain whether formal education since leaving school, had been undertaken by the nonprofessional sample. The results show that 46.1% of the sample had had formal education. The results further indicate that 90% of marriage guidance counsellors had had formal education and this obviously provides some distortion of the overall picture. It is interesting to note that the marriage guidance service, recruits candidates who have a much greater chance than other nonprofessinal

helpers, of having had formal education since leaving school. This must reflect on a number of other issues which have not been investigated here, but are certainly worthy of investigation.

A further area of investigation of helpers in Palmerston North related to race, and the results are revealed in Tables 6 and 31. Table 6 shows that 9.3% of professional helpers in Palmerston North are Maoris. One agency the Department of Maori and Island Affairs, has as a policy, the employment of Maoris as Maori welfare officers, wherever possible. This agency contributed 4 of the 7 Maoris in the survey. It is striking to find only one Maori in the nonprofessional sample. Honorary Maori welfare officers and Maori wardens were included in the list of agencies from which the sample was drawn. As with honorary social workers in the Department of Social Welfare, policy on the involvement of honorary Maori welfare officers differs from district to district. The district centred on Palmerston North has not made extensive use of honorary officers, and therefore not encouraged their appointment.

It was pointed out during interviews, that the Maori welfare officers are much more likely to use the informal Maori network of support in the community than Pakehas. This means that many nonprofessionals are utilised, but they do not in the majority of cases, belong to formal organisations such as were used for arriving at the sample to be surveyed for this study.

(2) <u>The Nonprofessional Contribution</u>:

(a) <u>The use made of nonprofessionals</u>

In looking at the question of the use that is made of non-professionals, it seemed that an assumption was being made, namely that nonprofessionals thought they should be used by professionals. A question was included to test this assumption and the results appear in Table 34. These results show that 56.6% of the nonprofessional sample felt that they should help professionals carry out their work with clients. 39.5% felt that it was sometimes appropriate to help and 3.9% felt it was not appropriate to help professionals with their clients. With 96.1% of the sample feeling it was appropriate, or "sometimes" appropriate we have confirmation that the original assumption was valid.

The other side of this question, namely do professionals feel nonprofessionals should help them carry out their work with their clients was not covered by such a direct question, but was ascertained through responses to other questions. It was appropriate to make the assumption that professionals did want nonprofessionals to help them, in the light of the literature reviewed in Chapters 1 and 2. This literature was overwhelming in its support of the positive contribution the non-professional had to make. Tables 7 and 8 reveal the responses of professional helpers to the questions of agency encouragement of use of nonprofessionals and the actual use of nonprofessionals by professionals. Table 8 shows that 88% of professional helpers have used a nonprofessional helper to assist them carry out their work and this figure represents a remarkably high proportion, especially when allowance is made for those workers who had not been in the field long enough to request nonprofessional assistance.

Table 7 represents an attempt to find out if there was any major difference between the professional helpers use of nonprofessionals and agency encouragement of such use. 82.7% of the sample felt their agency did encourage the use of nonprofessionals and this is to be compared with the 88% who had asked for nonprofessional help. The difference of response (5%) between the two tables is minimal and could be accounted for by random factors; it is not statistically significant.

Not all agencies are committed to the use of nonprofessionals. There was no provision in the study to ask each agency for its policy on nonprofessional useage. This was because the focus of the study was on individuals, rather than agencies. It is rare in the literature, and in practical experience to find agencies that do not use nonprofessionals. Campbell (1974) found in a survey of agencies in Palmerston North, that only one out of 25 agencies interviewed did not use volunteers. The Society for Research on Women Survey (1973) surveyed 119 organisations in Wellington and found 31 did not use volunteers but these organisations were not offering the kind of service that could utilise volunteers, that is, all except one, Hamilton-Smith (1973) found that of 301 agencies surveyed in Victoria, 47 (16%) did not use volunteers. 68% indicated they had "never" used volunteers and 32% had used them "sometimes". As indicated, no direct comparisons can be drawn between the above figures and those of the present study. The 17.3% of helpers in the present study who felt that their agency did not encourage the use of non-professionals may all have come from the one agency, although this is

unlikely. The question, it should also be noted related to 'encouragement' and not actual 'use'.

Table 9 and its results relating to decision making over use of nonprofessional help represent very little. Looking back, this question was of little value in terms of the purpose of the study. It had been anticipated that the question asked would provide another variant on the issue of worker use of nonprofessionals in contrast to agency policy, but the wording of the question did not provide for this. It is worth noting that 68% of professional helpers make the decision regarding involvement of nonprofessional help and 32% have to seek another person's approval.

The first table referred to in this section (Table 34), related to nonprofessionals views regarding whether they should make a contribution. This question was followed by a similar question, but relating to the felt capability of nonprofessionals to help professionals with their work. Table 35 shows that 100% of the sample said "yes" or "sometimes" in terms of feeling capable to assist. 48.7% felt unreservedly that they were capable, and 51.3% expressed reservations. These figures need to be compared with Table 27 which shows that 24% of the professional helpers saw nonprofessional helpers lack of knowledge regarding their own limitations as a disadvantage. For the nonprofessional to feel, without reservation, that he is capable of helping may indicate something of a lack of insight into his own limitations.

Table 41 presents the results of an attempt to find out what the nonprofessional sample had actually been asked to do, by professional helpers. 56.6% of the sample had 'never been asked' by a professional helper for assistance. At first sight this may seem a very high proportion, at least in relation to the 12% of professional helpers who had never used a nonprofessional. However what has to be remembered is that the professionals represented a total population and the nonprofessionals represented a one in five random sample. What it does suggest is that with 75 professionals and 402 nonprofessional helpers (as determined for this study) in Palmerston North there is much less opportunity for nonprofessionals to be asked for help. This fact needs to be remembered in relation to many of the following results.

Table 41 shows that requests for 'support/befriending' came most frequently, 18.4% of the sample having had, such a request. 'Advice and

guidance', and 'counselling' both rate equal responses with 9.2% and material assistance has been asked of 6.6% of the sample. These results are in line with those that follow in general and in particular those appearing in Table 42, where nonprofessional respondents were asked to indicate what task they would most like to be asked to help with. 47.4%, almost half of the sample said they would prefer to be asked by professionals to provide 'befriending/support'. This was followed by 22.4% prefering to be asked to provide 'counselling'. It needs to be noted here, that this figure is influenced considerably by the marriage guidance counsellors. All ten of them wished to be asked to provide counselling as could be expected from their training and agency orientation. 18.4% of the sample wished to be asked to provide 'advice/ guidance', and 10.5% opted for providing material assistance. This latter figure is of particular interest, as it has traditionally been thought that the nonprofessionals contribution has been in the 'material' or 'practical' sphere. Table 26 shows that 20% of professional helpers felt that nonprofessionals had material resources available and this was one of the advantages of working with them. This issue is explored further in section 2c of this chapter.

It would have been of interest to investigate the relationship of the results in Table 41 with the results of Table 42, but this was not possible. In particular it would be helpful to know if there was any significant difference between the preferences of those nonprofessionals who had been asked for help and those who hadn't.

(b) Nonprofessional Contributions:

This section builds on the foregoing in that the results to be discussed, relate to the actual areas in which contributions can and are made.

Table 36 presents results relating to what each respondent in the nonprofessional sample feels he 'can best do to help people in need'. The results mirror (in general) those in Table 42, which relate to what the nonprofessional desires to be asked to do. Table 36 shows that 14.5% of the sample think their best contribution is in the 'material' or 'practical' area. This is higher than the 10.5% (Table 42) who wished to be asked to contribute in this area. 53.9% felt that they could best help with 'befriending/support' and this is to be compared with 47.4% (Table 42)

who wished to be asked to provide this. The final two categories represent less confidence in doing the work, that nonprofessionals would like to be asked to do. 15.8% felt they could best offer 'advice/ guidance', compared with 18.4% (Table 42) who wanted to be asked to provide this. 15.8% felt their best contribution was in counselling, compared with 22.4% who wanted to 'be asked to provide this'. The discrepancy is most marked in this last category (6.6%) and is not accounted for by the presence of marriage guidance counsellors.

The results in Table 36 can then be compared with the results in Table 10 which looks at the same issue but from the professionals point of view. Professionals were asked what they thought 'the typical nonprofessional could do best to assist them carry out their work'. The results represent a marked similarity in the area of 'befriending/support'. 54.7% of professionals thought that this was the most effective contribution of the nonprofessional, compared with 53.9% of nonprofessionals feeling the same way. However, no professionals thought the nonprofessionals best contribution was counselling, while 15.8% of nonprofessionals saw this as their chief contribution. This discrepancy is partly accounted for by the marriage guidance counsellors. Their status, i.e. professional or nonprofessional is open to debate. They are nonprofessional in regard to the present study and in line with the criteria laid down in Chapter 3, but some professionals in Palmerston North, indicated that they regarded marriage guidance counsellors as professionals. This is an area of some debate which is fully covered in Chapter 3. This factor will have affected the results outlined in Table 10.

Again, there is a marked similarity in relation to 'advice/guidance'. 17.3% of professionals saw this as the 'best' contribution the nonprofessional could make, while 15.8% of nonprofessionals felt the same way. A marked discrepancy is reflected between the two tables in relation to the 'material' or 'practical' help category. 28% of professionals felt this was the best contribution the nonprofessional could make while only half this number of nonprofessionals (14.5%) agreed. It would appear that this discrepancy is important in terms of recognising the value of the nonprofessional contribution. The results suggest that professionals may well tend to undervalue, or limit nonprofessionals possible contribution. This view gains some support from the results in Table 60 which show that one of the disadvantages nonprofessionals feel in working with professionals, is that their contribution is undervalued. (27.6%) We

shall return to this issue in Chapter 7.

Having ascertained what the nonprofessional sample felt they could 'best do', four questions were asked relating to felt capability to perform each of the four task areas. The results appear in Tables 37, 38, 39 and 40. There was a similar response rate, 93.4% and 94.7% to providing 'material help', and 'befriending/support'. Over three quarters of the sample (77.6%) felt capable of offering 'advice/guidance', and the figure dropped to 51.3% for those feeling capable of offering counselling. These figures represent an expected pattern on my part. The four categories were graded according to the degree of knowledge and skill that was required to carry out each. The hypothesis was that the degree of skill or knowledge involved in offering 'material' or 'practical' help was essentially minimal. This is not to ignore the fact that the way such 'material' help is given, frequently determines its acceptance. To offer befriending/support did not require any specific skill, but it did require more in terms of demands on the nonprofessional. 'More' is seen not only in terms of time, but also in terms of 'giving oneself'. Advice and guidance required yet more skill and in particular knowledge, and finally, counselling was the most demanding type of assistance which the nonprofessional could offer. As the degree of involvement, skill and knowledge increased, I hypothesised that less nonprofessionals would feel capable of offering such help. This hypothesis has been confirmed, although I must admit that the proportions feeling capable of offering help, particularly 'advice/guidance' and 'counselling' were much higher than expected. Again this may tend to reflect the earlier comments regarding nonprofessionals not knowing their own limitations, or it may represent some confusion regarding what is implied in the use of the terms 'advice/guidance' and 'counselling'. No provision was made for ascertaining this. The foregoing comments represent the professional viewpoint of course. Again it needs to be noted that a distortion has occurred because of the presence of the marriage guidance counsellors.

Tables 11, 12, and 43 show the results of questions which sought to have professionals and nonprofessionals evaluate the nonprofessional contribution. Table 11 shows professionals evaluation of the contribution of the nonprofessional to the professional's agency. Five categories were offered by way of alternatives and four of these were used by respondents. 'Very positive' drew a response rate of 22.7%, 'positive' 65.3%, 'neutral' 10.7% and 'negative' 1.3%. Very negative had no response.

This indicates that 88% of professional helpers had a 'positive' or 'very positive' appreciation of the nonprofessional contribution, which is a very high response.

Sobey (1970) found from her research in America that when directors of programmes utilising nonprofessionals were asked to make an evaluation, they overwhelmingly felt "that the service performed by nonprofessionals justified the expense of training, supervision, and general agency overhead". She did not include questions like those in the present study.

In an attempt to find out if there was any difference between the appreciation of the contribution to the agency as opposed to the individual professional, a question was asked, the results of which appear as Table 12. I had anticipated that there may have been some significant difference between the two tables. This was on the basis that some agency's encouraged the use of nonprofessionals and some did not. This did not prove to be the case, the results of Tables 11 and 12 being almost identical.

Nonprofessional helpers were also asked to evaluate the contribution (the typical nonprofessional) made in assisting professionals with their clients. In contrast to the 88% of professionals (Table 11) who viewed the contribution as 'positive' or 'very positive', 93.4% of the nonprofessionals (Table 43), chose these categories. The nonprofessionals therefore viewed their contribution slightly more positively than did the professionals. The difference however, (5.4%) is small.

It is not possible to make any comparisons of the results included in this section with those of other studies, as no other studies have been located which sought to examine the same issues.

(c) Frequency of Nonprofessional Contributions:

To investigate the frequency of nonprofessional contributions, five questions were asked of nonprofessionals and five almost identical questions asked of professionals. These questions asked firstly, for the last time assistance was asked for or given, and secondly the frequency of asking or giving each category of help.

Table 15 shows that 42.6% of professional helpers had asked a nonprofessional for assistance in the past week. This compares with 7.9% of the nonprofessional sample (Table 44) who had received such a request in the past week. We are here confronted with the same situation described on page 105 where the difference between the total population of professional helpers and the 20% sample of nonprofessional helpers is in evidence. Table 15 also shows that only 16% of the professional helpers had not requested assistance, in the last six months. This compares with 71% of the nonprofessionals not having been asked for help.

Tables 16 and 45 refer to frequency of requests for help in the 'material' or 'practical' category. 14.7% of professionals said they 'frequently' requested assistance, whereas only 1.3% of nonprofe sionals said they frequently received such requests. 58.6% of professionals 'sometimes' requested 'material' help, compared with 17.1% of nonprofessionals receiving requests 'sometimes'. 26.7% of professionals said they never asked for such help, whereas 81.6% of nonprofessionals said they were never asked. What has to be born in mind in relation to the nonprofessional figures is that many of the nonprofessional agencies do not have as part of their service, the provision of 'material' or 'practical' help. This is particularly so for marriage guidance counsellors and samaritans. We can conclude that the nature of the agency will determine the requests made to it and as a wide range of agencies have provided the nonprofessionals for the sample, it is difficult to draw very valid conclusions. The same can be said for the results of the following six tables. It also needs to be recognised that as 56.6% of the nonprofessional sample has never been asked for any kind of help, that this figure has to be deducted from the 'never' category, for a clearer picture to emerge. There have been no other studies found which have looked at this same area and therefore no comparisons can be drawn.

Tables 17 and 41 relate to requests for 'befriending/support'. A higher proportion of professionals ask for this kind of help than they do for 'material' or 'practical' help. 24% ask 'frequently', 61.3% 'sometimes' and only 14.7% 'never'. The proportion of nonprofessionals receiving requests for such help is also higher than the requests for 'material' help. 2.6% receive requests 'frequently', 28.9% 'sometimes', and 68.5% 'never'.

Tables 18 and 47 relate to requests for 'advice/guidance'. 12% of professionals 'frequently' request such help, 56.0% 'sometimes' and 32% 'never'. 6.6% of nonprofessionals receive such requests 'frequently' (the highest frequency rating of the four categories) 14.5% 'sometimes' and 78.9% 'never'.

Tables 19 and 48 relate to requests for counselling. Only 2.7% of professionals request counselling help for their clients from nonprofessionals (the lowest frequency rating in the four categories) 'frequently', 36% request it 'sometimes' and 61.3% 'never'. 3.9% of the nonprofessional sample receive requests for counselling 'frequently' while 9.2% receive requests 'sometimes' and 86.9% 'never' receive requests.

The overall results relating to frequency of help being requested, sheds more light on what professionals ask for than on what nonprofessionals are asked for.

(3) Relationships Between Professional and Nonprofessional Helpers

Chapter 2 discussed the issue of relationships between professional and nonprofessional helpers. It was pointed out in that discussion that the literature relating to the reintroduction of the nonprofessional to the helping scene in an active way, and in a way which was encouraged by professionals was greeted by considerable anxiety on the part of the professionals. The literature of the early 1960's contains many expressions of concern. However, the more recent literature makes little reference to this area, almost as it were, assuming that this is no longer a major issue. I believe that this is probably the case, certainly as far as the U.S.A. and the U.K. are concerned. I hypothesised that helping services in New Zealand were not at this same stage, and that considerable anxiety still remained. This anxiety does not, it appears, belong only to relationships between professional and nonprofessional helpers. It would seem that there is some anxiety between different disciplines within the helping services. This area is not the subject of the present study, but it is worthy of note, as it was reflected in some of the comments which were additional to the survey questions.

Several questions were asked to test the above hypothesis, covering in particular, professional and nonprofessional helpers working

together, expectations professional and nonprofessional helpers have of each other, and the advantages and disadvantages of professional and nonprofessional helpers working together.

(a) Professional and Nonprofessional Helpers Working Together

Table 53 shows the response to the question, 'If a client requests help from you, do you ask them if they have seen, or are seeing a professional helper?', 46.1% of the sample of nonprofessionals answered "yes", a further 47.4% answered "sometimes", and 6.5% answered "no". This latter figure is encouragingly low from the professionals point of view. I say encouraging, because it is all too easy when one becomes involved in helping, whether as a professional or nonprofessional, to forget that other helpers exist, or might be involved. The figure of 46.1% saying they would ask the question of clients is also encouraging, as it represents to me, an indication of awareness of the possibility of other's involvement. The foregoing does not imply that a response of 47.4% to "sometimes" asking is discouraging. It has to be recognised that in meeting certain needs, the asking of this question by a non-professional could be seen as an intrusion of the privacy of the client, or irrelevant to the help being given. The results do indicate that the overwhelming majority of respondents were aware of the possibility of joint (professional and nonprofessional) involvement.

Table 54 records the results of a question relating to asking the client's permission before contact is made with a professional helper who is involved. This principle of client permission before contact with a third party is a central ethical issue in helping. The present results show that 61.9% of the sample, would seek client permission, while a further 27.6% would "sometimes" seek such permission. It is of particular interest to note the response of marriage guidance counsellors (Group B) to this question. They responded 100% in terms of seeking permission. This reflects on their training programmes, which emphasise this principle the same as do professional training programmes. The 10.5% response to the "no" alternative, is a matter of concern. There seems to be no doubt on the part of the eight helpers concerned.

Table 55 shows the results of the nonprofessional helpers being offered the choice of working with a client who was seeing a professional helper at the same time or not. One fifth of the sample (19.7%) said they

would prefer to work alone, one quarter said they prefered to work alone "sometimes", and just over half (55.3%) were happy to work with clients who were seeing a professional helper at the same time. I feel it is appropriate to conclude from these results that just under half of the respondents (44.7%) expressed some reservations about working with a professional and this conclusion is further reinforced in section (c) which follows.

Two questions were asked to examine from another perspective the nonprofessional sample's views about professional helpers. Tables 56 and 57 present the results. Table 56 shows that three quarters of respondents (73.7%) felt that "some" professionals understand nonprofessionals. This represents a high proportion of doubt. Only one respondent was quite certain in their mind that professionals did not understand nonprofessionals, while 25% felt quite certain that professionals did understand. These results would suggest that there is need for improvement on the part of professionals understanding, if the fullest use is to be made of nonprofessional helpers.

Table 57 gives support to the above, and in fact paints a more depressing picture than the results of Table 56. 18.4% of respondents, almost one in five were quite definite that professionals did not give enough encouragement and support to nonprofessional helpers. 23.7% of respondents were quite satisfied, while 57.9% felt that "some" professionals were supportive and encouraging and "some" were not. These figures support my own view, held for some time now, namely that professionals are not encouraging and supportive enough of their nonprofessional colleagues. There are many reasons why this is the case; some of them are understandable, for example, time restraints on workers with heavy caseloads, but I also believe there are some reasons which are not so understandable, such as the feeling of threat implied by the nonprofessionals helping.

It is interesting to note, that while 56.6% of respondents had not been asked to help a professional with his client, these same respondents were quite ready to give their views on the above questions. It would seem that the experiences of other nonprofessionals had been passed on to them, or they had preconceived feelings based on personal experiences of professional helpers.

Tables 58 and 13 should be viewed together, as they explore the same issue from the professional and nonprofessional point of view. Table 58 shows that those nonprofessional helpers who are asked for help, are most likely to receive their request via their agency (27.6% of total respondents), while 15.8% will receive their request from a professional helper known to them within an agency. The remaining 56.6% of respondents had not received any requests. The professional helpers are most likely to ask for help from a person known to them within an agency (44%) followed closely by asking an agency (40%). 5.3% used a personal contact outside of agencies, and 10.7% did not ask for help. These results suggest that professional helpers are more likely to use people known to them, (49.3%), than an agency (44%). My impression from working in Palmerston North for 5 years, was that personal contacts and relationships played a large part in the number of requests for help, and the direction of those requests. The above results support this impression. On the part of nonprofessional helpers, the pattern is not so clear, because of the high percentage of respondents who have never received a request.

Table 14 relates to professional helpers view of the worth of nonprofessional helpers. The question was asked "Are nonprofessionals more work than they are worth?" with the aim of obtaining a summary attitude of professional's views. 60% said "no" to the question, 28% said "sometimes", 8% said "usually" and 2.7% said "yes". Overall these results indicate a predominantly positive attitude (88%) on the part of professional helpers.

Again, this area of investigation was breaking new ground and therefore there are no studies to compare the results with.

(b) Expectations professional and nonprofessional helpers have of each other

To ascertain the expectations that operate between professional and nonprofessional helpers, 8 questions were asked, four to each group. These four questions each covered the same area of expectation. Unfortunately, a mistake was made in the construction of the questionnaire, in that four responses were provided for the nonprofessional sample and only three responses for the professional helpers. This has limited the effectiveness of this section of the study, although the results, taken

separately are quite valid. It is in the area of comparisons that the problem arises.

Table 49 shows the expectation of the nonprofessional sample in relation to 'overall responsibility' when a client has been referred. Again we have over half (57.9%) of respondents not having been asked. Of the remainder of the sample, 17.1% said they did expect the professional helper to continue overall responsibility, 3.9% said "no" and 21.1% said "sometimes". It is noticeable that no marriage guidance counsellors expect the professional to continue overall responsibility. This again reflects their training and the orientation of their agency. The provision of supervision for all counsellors make them less dependent on the referring professionals than other nonprofessional helpers.

Table 50 shows the results relating to expectations about keeping the professional helper who made the referral, informed of progress. Only 2.6% said they did not expect to keep the professional informed, 7.9% said "sometimes" they expect to, 31.6% said "yes" and 57.9% hadn't been asked. These figures show clearly that those nonprofessionals who had been asked for help were predominantly of the view that they kept the professionals informed.

Table 51 covers a question very closely related to the foregoing area. The respondents were asked if they expected to contact the referring professional, only if there was a crisis. 36.8% said no, a higher proportion than the 31.6% who said "yes" to the related question shown in Table 50. If the expectation was to keep the professional informed of progress, then the expectation should also be that contact would not only be if there was a crisis. It is also interesting to note that those who said "sometimes" to keeping the professional informed of progress were much higher than those who said "sometimes" to contact only being if there was a crisis. It appears as if a crisis leaves little doubt in the mind of the nonprofessional respondents that contact would be made with professionals.

Table 52 relates to expectations regarding the provision of supervision by professional helpers. The differences between "yes", "no" and "sometimes" responses was not very great 10.5%, expecting supervision, 13.2% "sometimes" expecting supervision, and 18.4% not expecting supervision. These figures reflect, I believe, the different

agency functions and therefore the different expectations that accompany those functions.

Table 20 and the following tables relate to the professional helpers. Table 20 shows that 68% of professionals expect to continue overall responsibility, with 22.7% not expecting to, and 9.3% not having asked. The 68% figure suggests a high expectation of professional control. The 22.7% who don't have this expectation probably represent agencies where once a referral is made, it is regarded as the end of the professional's responsibility. This is particularly the case where a psychiatrist at the hospital may refer to a marriage guidance counsellor.

Table 21 relates to expectations regarding being kept informed of progress and the results are identical to those for expectations regarding overall responsibility (Table 20).

The same pattern emerges in Table 22, there being a slight modification to the figures. As would be expected 72% of professional helpers did not expect to be contacted only if there was a crisis. The expectation was rather for continuous information.

On the question of expecting to provide supervision or otherwise, the respondents were almost equally divided, 46.7% expecting to provide some form of supervision and 44% not expecting this. It is of interest to note that Table 27 shows that 10.7% of professionals see one of the disadvantages of working with a nonprofessional as being their lack of supervision. On the other hand, Table 59 shows that 68.4% of non-professionals see as an advantage of working with a professional, their opportunity to learn from them. This latter advantage cannot be equated with supervision, but it certainly is a major way of learning.

Tables 24 and 25 show the results of an attempt to ascertain if professionals might be prejudiced against the use of nonprofessionals who had themselves, received professional help. Table 24 relates to actual use of such nonprofessionals and shows that 40% had used a nonprofessional who had received help and 60% had not. Table 25 relates to whether use would be made of nonprofessionals who had received help. 37.3% said "yes" they would and this closely mirrors the 40% who had made use in the past. 60% said they "may" use such a nonprofessional, and only 2.7% were quite convinced that no use would be made. The 60% in the "maybe" category is understandable in the light of the results shown in Table 27,

which shows the disadvantages expressed by professional helpers in working with nonprofessional helpers. Many of the disadvantages listed had an element of the nonprofessionals own needs coming to the surface as they tried to assist clients.

(c) Advantages and disadvantages of professional and nonprofessional helpers working together

Tables 26 and 27 show the advantages and disadvantages listed by professional helpers, while Tables 59 and 60 show the advantages and disadvantages listed by nonprofessional helpers. The questions were open ended and analysis followed the completion of interviewing of all respondents. It is of interest to note at the outset, that 12% of professional helpers said they had not asked a nonprofessional helper for assistance. This 12% figure compares with 9.3% who said they had had "no experience" when asked to list advantages and disadvantages. The picture is very different in relation to the nonprofessional sample. 56.5% said they had never been asked for assistance, but only 11.8% of this same sample said they had "no experience" when asked about advantages while 15.8% said they had had no experience when asked about disadvantages. This inconsistency, which is quite marked with the nonprofessional sample indicates that while over a half of the nonprofessional sample had not been asked for help, they still had views which they were prepared to offer. This same pattern emerged in relation to the questions on expectations. From a statistical point of view this calls the results shown in Tables 59 and 60 into question. From the point of view of the study, the implication is that some 40% of the nonprofessional sample were ready to report advantages and disadvantages, of working with a professional helper, without having had any personal experience.

Table 26 shows that the nonprofessional's offering of friendship and a personal relationship was seen as the greatest advantage, 42.7% of professional helpers reporting this. Closely allied to this, although clearly different, was the 38.7% response to nonprofessionals not being an authority figure, not being attached to a government agency and not being professional. This was followed by 37.3% of the sample feeling that the availability of nonprofessionals was an advantage. The high rating in relation to the friendship/personal relationship that non-professionals can offer is reflected in Table 10, where 54.7% of

professional helpers felt that befriending/support was the best contribution the nonprofessional helper could make to assisting the professional carry out his work. This fact keeps recurring throughout the study both from the professional and nonprofessional helper's points of view. The range of advantages reported by professionals is quite extensive and indicates a good appreciation of the value of collaborative work.

Table 27 reports the disadvantages professional helpers have found. There were a wider range of disadvantages reported (12), than advantages (8). This in part accounts for the fact that no one disadvantage was reported by more than 29.3%. The spread of responses was much more even, the range being 29.3% to 6.7%. Comment has been made in Chapter 4 of the total number of advantages and disadvantages reported. It is of interest to note that many of the categories reflect personal or emotional issues as underlying the reported disadvantages, this being in contrast to what may be described as 'professional' issues, or issues associated with practice.

Table 59 reports the advantages that nonprofessional helpers feel as a result of working with professionals. 68.4% of respondents said that the opportunity to learn from professionals was the chief advantage. This figure indicates a high commitment to learning. There was then a dramatic drop to 17.1% of the sample saying that working together benefits the client. The same proportion valued the support/encouragement/ reassurance that was given. These figures show that nonprofessionals tend to be more concerned with what they can learn for themselves from working alongside a professional than what they can contribute to the client. This on the surface seems surprising, but it has to be recognised that greater knowledge may be seen by nonprofessionals as ultimately beneficial to clients.

There are a cluster of three categories with similar responses reported in Table 60 - (1) Undervaluation of nonprofessional and lack of support (27.6%), (2) too aloof and professional (26.3%) and (3) they act superior/I feel inferior (26.3%). These three disadvantages are quite closely related, being all associated with, again, the personal/emotional area, as opposed to the professional or practice issues. This seems to imply, as will be taken up in more detail in Chapter 7, that the major issue of concern expressed by both professional and nonprofessional

helpers regarding working together, revolves around the issue of the personal/emotional area of relationships.

The only material I have found which relates to this area of the study, is a section of Sobey's study (1970) which was concerned with interaction between professionals and nonprofessionals. Sobey summarises her results by saying, "As may be noted, the four most frequently reported inter-action experiences applicable to paid nonprofessional staff contained both positive and negative features. On the plus side, collaboration between professionals and nonprofessionals provided experience in supervision for professional staff, and expanded professional staff's understanding of client groups through association with nonprofessionals. Less advantageous were the additional professional time required for training and supervision and the overlapping of functions between professionals and nonprofessionals".

The above results do not reflect the results of this study, although the questions were worded differently and this may account for part of the different results. What may be an explanation of the difference, is the point made throughout the study, namely that the issue of relationships between the two groups is still of considerable importance in New Zealand, whereas the literature from the U.S.A. and U.K. indicates that this issue does not receive the same attention now.

CHAPTER VII

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The decision to include a chapter on the implications of the study was made because it was recognised that this study had an important contribution to make to planning and practice decisions regarding helping services in New Zealand. Policy decisions regarding helping services are being increasingly made by the Department of Social Welfare and to this end, a copy of this thesis will be forwarded to that Department. It is also intended to prepare for publication, at least two papers on the study and to circulate these to all the helping agencies in Palmerston North that contributed to the study.

There are many implications of the study, but three chief ones deserve attention, these being:-

(a) Utilisation of resources,
(b) Relationship factors, and
(c) Differentiation of skills.

These will be looked at in turn, and then some conclusions drawn.

This study was set against the background of societal trends which have major significance for the helping profession. Central to these trends is the increasing evidence of maladjustment and the resultant increase in helping services. The manpower issue in helping services has become vitally important, and there is no indication that it is going to be miraculously solved in the immediate future, if ever (Hobbs 1964). Demand will continue to outstrip supply. The literature from overseas suggests that one way other countries are trying to cope with this, is by greater use of nonprofessional (both paid and unpaid) personnel. There is good research evidence to show the effectiveness of non-professional help and this was reviewed in Chapters 1 and 2. It remains an interesting point however, as to whether the growth in the use of nonprofessionals, is because they are now 'believed in', in other words their contribution has been recognised, or whether the demand for service is so great, that help must be obtained from somewhere, and nonprofessionals are the only resource available.

What ever the reasons for nonprofessional manpower usage, the indications from overseas are clear, more and more are being used. The present study represented a very modest attempt to look at what was happening between professional and nonprofessional helpers in Palmerston North, New Zealand. The study was breaking new ground and this has contributed to a number of the difficulties experienced, and referred to throughout the text. Studies in other countries were consulted but it was of little value to replicate one of these - the study had to be designed for New Zealand.

The 100% response rate from respondents was most encouraging and represented I believe, a commitment on the part of the helpers of Palmerston North, to explore this issue as well.

Chapter 3 made it clear that the focus of the study did not include the areas of motivation and selection of nonprofessional helpers. I was intrigued however about one aspect of motivation which was so prominant as to be impossible to ignore. Professional helpers were mainly interviewed in their offices and nonprofessional helpers mainly in their homes. In the latter there was a very marked presence of religious, and specifically christian influence. This presence was in the form of religious pictures, or texts, or comments made spontaneously by respondents. I estimate that 80% of respondents would have reflected this. It was a matter of considerable interest, in terms of the motivation factor.

The study did not concern itself in any detail with the question of training. What little was ascertained indicated that training courses were more appropriate to some areas of nonprofessional help than others. There appear to be many opportunities in Palmerston North for people to attend courses. Apart from programmes provided by individual agencies, Massey University, through its Extension Department, provides numerous courses. No research has been carried out on the effectiveness of these courses and such research is desirable.

(a) Utilisation of resources:

The results of the study show that professional helpers appear to utilise nonprofessional resources. 65.3% of professional helpers said they had asked a nonprofessional helper for assistance in the past month, with 42.6% having made such a request in the past week.

Nonprofessional helpers report very little utilisation, 56.6% never having been asked for help, and only 7.8% saying they had been asked for help in the past week. The study does not seem to indicate any shortage of manpower resources. In this respect the study supports the findings of Hamilton-Smith (1973) and Barr (1971). This is in contrast to the study by the Society for Research of Women (1973) in Wellington, which indicated agencies could not find enough volunteers and that there was a high turnover.

It has been my experience that many professional helpers complain about heavy caseloads and resultant ineffectiveness. This study, and the literature reviewed shows that resources are available to be utilised but are not.

It is important to note the way in which nonprofessional help is used, when it is used. Nonprofessional helpers tend to limit the contribution they feel they can make to primarily, befriending/support. Professionals also see this as the nonprofessionals most useful contribution. The literature suggests that nonprofessional helpers have much more to offer in terms of helping and they ought to be trained (where necessary) and encouraged to provide it. I believe this study has shown that overall, nonprofessional manpower utilisation by professionals is unimaginative and somewhat restrictive. This may well be because of what the Aves Report (1969) described as the threat the nonprofessional is to the professional. This was discussed in Chapter 1. Professional helpers need to be reminded of what Joan Mitchell (1966) said, "I often think of a remark by Professor Caplan of Harvard University quoted to me recently - to the effect that the amateur's capacity for harming a client is much less than a professional's! This is a salutary thought and also a comforting one. One has to remember, humbly perhaps, that people have felt the urge to help others since time immemorial, that the professional social worker is a modern product who has become, possibly a little scornful of the great untrained body of voluntary amateurs." Hamilton-Smith (1973) found that in Australia agencies used nonprofessional helpers to undertake a greater range of tasks, than the results of this study indicate happens in Palmerston North.

It is conceivable that in the future less use of nonprofessional help by professionals will be made, and this is of concern. This statement is based on the finding by Hamilton-Smith (1973) that voluntary

agencies are more likely to utilise nonprofessional help than statutory agencies. The current trend in New Zealand seems to be towards rapid expansion of statutory services and one may conclude that nonprofessional help, rather than being more fully utilised may be less fully utilised.

(b) Relationship factors:

The relationship between professional and nonprofessional helpers was investigated, and specifically the 'personal' aspects of the relationship. It was my hypothesis that this was a major contributing factor to the under-utilisation of nonprofessional help. Obviously it is not the only issue, but it was the one that received most attention in the study.

The results confirm the hypothesis and Chapter 6 discusses this in some detail.

There are two main implications arising from the above. The first is that professionals need to be trained on how to work with nonprofessional helpers. I am not aware of any such training being offered in New Zealand helping courses. The Aves Report (1969) devotes a lot of attention to this issue, outlining the types of training that are necessary. Fitch et al (1971), and Boyette et al (1972), are two articles written by nonprofessionals and including suggestions as to what training is necessary for professionals. The articles are most informative especially in view of the perspective from which they are written. There is also a need for training in terms of the nonprofessionals. They need to know certain issues relating to how the professional works and why so that joint work is possible.

Courses with which I have had experience devote attention to training procedures and to understanding services, but I have not found any course which helps the nonprofessional to explore the issues of working along side a professional helper. Such a need is apparent, as indicated by the results of the study.

The other, and related factor, is that personal relationships usually improve when there is an opportunity for communication to take place. There is at present, no forum in Palmerston North in which professional and nonprofessional helpers can meet to share ideas or

views, nor much opportunity for sharing to take place regarding the clients that different workers are involved with. There is also no opportunity for joint participation in training programmes. The provision of formal communication networks would obviously go some way towards improving relationship factors and would, I believe, lead to greater utilization of nonprofessional manpower.

It seems to me, as a result of the study, that there is a need for agencies employing professional helpers, to make them available to nonprofessionals for supervision, consultation, encouragement, and support. Having said this, it needs to be recognised that not all professional helpers would be suitable to fulfil these duties. Perhaps an agency such as the Department of Social Welfare, needs to designate one of their staff (carefully selected, and with some special training) to work in this area.

In Palmerston North, there is a possibility of interesting new developments taking place. The appointment of a Director of Community Service employed by the Palmerston North City Council, may provide a new impetus in terms of examining the resources available to meet the needs of the community; providing greater opportunity for professional and nonprofessional helpers to meet the share; and establishing a network of helping that is not confined to traditional disciplines, or to the professional helpers alone.

(c) Differentiation of skills:

The use of the terms 'professional helper', and 'nonprofessional helper' raises an issue of some importance in terms of differentiation of skill. This study was based on the premise that the professional helper did different things than the nonprofessional helper, the difference being associated with different skill levels. The result of these different skill levels was that one group were paid for what they did, while the other offered their skill voluntarily. Chapter 2 showed that the traditional boundaries between these two groups are becoming blurred, and further suggested that this blurring was causing anxiety within the professionals. Indications of this anxiety were apparent in the general comments made by many professional helpers in the study and are seen in the results concerning the type of contribution that it is believed the nonprofessional helper can make. These anxieties can be more easily

understood when it is found that Barr (1971) pointed out that as a result of a special training programme, volunteers were involved in all the traditional work areas of the professional in prison after-care. Guerney (1969) argues in his collection of writings, that the limitations that have operated in the past, concerning the nonprofessionals contribution have to be radically revised. The anti-professional movement referred to in Chapter 1 strongly argues that all that the professional can do, the nonprofessional can do, and probably do it better.

Despite the foregoing, the present study has indicated that the professional helpers of Palmerston North generally see the nonprofessionals contribution as being a somewhat limited one in terms of skill level, and that the nonprofessional helpers are prepared to accept this. It was interesting to note in this respect that 24% of professional helpers saw as a disadvantage of working with nonprofessionals, the nonprofessionals inability to recognise his own limits. This implies the nonprofessional was trying to do things the professional thought he shouldn't be doing.

Arising out of this study, a proposal is put forward for a four level model of helping, determined by skill level, this being in contrast to the two level model - professional and nonprofessional which has been used throughout the study. In proposing this four level model, there is no intention of implying a rigid stratification system, but rather a level of commitment and training to helping.

Level one would be the consultant/supervisor who would spend most of his time assisting workers at the remaining three levels to carry out their work effectively. He would not take over the work of others, but would provide opportunities for ongoing learning. He would retain a limited clinical load to keep him in touch with field experiences. The consultant role has been best developed by Caplan (1961, 1970). Some agencies such as the Department of Social Welfare and Departments of Psychological Medicine might provide staff (carefully selected and trained) to carry out this work.

Level two would be the professional practitioner from any of the four disciplines included in this study, who had as his primary function, helping. He would be in the front line of client care and would work as part of a team with those at levels three and four. Professional

training would be a pre-requisite for work in this level.

Level three would be those workers, who, while not being primarily in a 'helping' role in the narrow sense, are in contact with clients needing help. Doctors, nurses, clergy, school teachers, are examples of level three workers. They would use the consultative services of level one, and where necessary refer to level two workers. They would be encouraged, through consultation to work within their own limits in terms of being a change agent. Also in this group would be the paid nonprofessionals, who have undergone some training and who work in close liaison with level two workers. Their particular skills would have to be recognised and work appropriate to those skills, entered into.

Level four would consist of most of the nonprofessional respondents of this study, that is, those citizens who wished to contribute on an unpaid basis, a number of hours, perhaps 1 to 20 per week to some helping activity. The opportunities for them to make their contribution should be greatly extended so that those with natural skills and training could function to their full potential for themselves, their clients, and the community. Such workers would be encouraged to be members of teams, these teams being based on areas of need, rather than agencies.

This model is proposed because of the advantages of working in teams; because it recognises the different skill levels and therefore the different contributions to be made; because it mobilises resources in the community at present largely untapped; and because it provides some comprehensive form of helping for individuals and the community.

Conclusions:

This thesis began with a consideration of historical factors associated with helping. It traced the growth and influence of the 'state' in welfare matters, and particularly the growth of the welfare state philosophy. It looked at the growth of helping services, and in particular professional helping services. Despite this growth, the evidence shows that there are still vast areas of unmet need in the community; professional helpers frequently complain about the pressure of workload and their resultant feeling of frustration at not being as effective as is possible.

This thesis has indicated that we don't have to learn to live with unmet needs in the community. The greater use of personnel resources in the community is strongly advocated, primarily because it has been shown that these personnel can be very effective, but also because it is good for the community that caring is not just left to professionals. The third reason, which tends to be the most important to many people is that manpower needs are such, that nonprofessional help has to be used.

The literature studied has shown what is possible in a team approach. This study has basically shown underutilization of personnel resources in the community by professional helpers. One possible area of explanation for this has been examined.

Implications of the study have been drawn, although these have, for the purpose of this thesis, been in general terms. More specific implications will be drawn for distribution to helping agencies and personnel in Palmerston North.

APPENDIX I

HELPING SERVICES IN PALMERSTON NORTH EMPLOYING PROFESSIONAL HELPERS

1.	Palmerston North Hospital Board:		
	(a) Childrens Unit	4	
	(b) Medical Social Department	5	
	(c) Manawaroa Centre for Psychological Medicine	22	31
2.	Department of Social Welfare		14
3.	Department of Justice - Probation Service		4
4.	Department of Maori and Island Affairs		4
5.	Department of Education - Psychological Services		5
6.	Crippled Childrens Society		3
7.	Methodist Social Service Centre		3
8.	Manawatu Family and Marriage Guidance Service		1
9.	Intellectually Handicapped Children's Society		1
10.	Palmerston North Teachers College - Counselling Service		1
11.	Massey University - Student Counselling Service		1
12.	Family Counsellor and Social Welfare Consultant		1
13.	All Saint's Children's Home Trust Inc.		1
14.	National Society of Alcholism and Drug Dependence		2
15.	Birthright (P.N.) Inc.		1
16.	Salvation Army		1
17.	Queen Elizabeth College - Guidance Counsellor		1
	TOTAL		75

A P P E N D I X I I

HELPING SERVICES IN PALMERSTON NORTH FROM WHICH NONPROFESSIONAL HELPER SAMPLE WAS DRAWN

1.	Samaritans (Manawatu) Inc.	21
2.	St. Vincent de Paul Society	6
3.	Single Mothers Group	3
4.	Heritage (Manawatu) Inc.	1
5.	Youthline	4
6.	Department of Maori and Island Affairs (Honorary Maori Welfare Officers and Maori Wardens)	2
7.	Manawatu Home Budgeting Service Inc.	7
8.	Prisoners Aid and Rehabilitation Society (Inc.)	1
9.	Birthright (Palmerston North) Inc.	20
10.	Department of Social Welfare (Honorary social workers)	1
11.	Manawatu Family and Marriage Guidance Service (Inc.)	10
	TOTAL	76

APPENDIX III

"NONPROFESSIONAL INVOLVEMENT IN HELPING SERVICES IN PALMERSTON NORTH"

Survey of nonprofessionals associated with helping services 1 ⌊⌊⌊⌋

1. Name of Agency associated with ..... ☐ 1 ☐ 2 4 ⌊⌋

2. Age

Under 18	☐	1	
18 - 21	☐	2	
22 - 30	☐	3	
31 - 45	☐	4	5 ⌊⌋
46 - 60	☐	5	
60 + ...	☐	6	

3. Maori ☐ 1
   European ☐ 2 6 ⌊⌋

4. Have you had any education or training leading to a formal qualification since leaving school?
   Specify:

Yes	☐	1	
No	☐	2	7 ⌊⌋
Still at School	☐	3	

5. Have you attended a course which was designed specifically to assist you to be effective as a nonprofessional helper?

Yes	☐	1	
No	☐	2	8 ⌊⌊⌋

Could you please specify:-

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

Type ..... Duration .....

6. What do you think you as a nonprofessional helper can do best to help people in need?

(1) Provide material assistance (including transport)	☐	1
(2) Provide befriending/give support	☐	2
(3) Provide advice and guidance	☐	3
(4) Provide counselling	☐	4

10 ☐

7. Do you think nonprofessionals should help professionals carry out their work with clients?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3

11 ☐

8. Do you think nonprofessionals are capable of helping professionals carry out their work with clients?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3

12 ☐☐

9. If a professional asks you for help with one of his clients, what is he most likely to want you to do?

(1) Provide material assistance	☐	1
(2) Provide befriending/support	☐	2
(3) Provide advice and guidance	☐	3
(4) Provide counselling	☐	4
(5) Not asked	☐	5

14 ☐

10. What would you most like professionals to ask you to do, to assist with their clients?

(1) Provide material assistance	☐	1
(2) Provide befriending/support	☐	2
(3) Provide advice and guidance	☐	3
(4) Provide counselling	☐	4
(5) Prefer them not to ask	☐	5

15 ☐☐

11. When was the last time you were asked by a professional worker to help with a client? (either personally or through your agency)

(1) Within the past week	☐	1
(2) 1 - 4 weeks	☐	2
(3) 1 - 6 months	☐	3
(4) Over 6 months	☐	4
(5) Never	☐	5

18 ⌊_⌋

12. How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide material assistance for clients?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

19 ⌊_⌋

13. How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide befriending/support for clients?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

20 ⌊_⌋

14. How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide advice and guidance for clients?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

21 ⌊_⌋

15. How frequently are you asked by a professional to provide assistance with personal or inter-personal problems for clients/counselling?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

22 ⌊_⌋⌊_⌋

16. How would you evaluate the contribution the typical nonprofessional makes in assisting professionals with their clients?

(1)	Very positive	1
(2)	Positive	2
(3)	Neutral	3
(4)	Negative	4
(5)	Very Negative	5

25 ⌊_⌋

17. From what source are you most likely to receive a request for nonprofessional assistance with a client?

(1)	An agency	1
(2)	A person known to you within an agency	2
(3)	A personal contact	3
(4)	Not asked	4
(5)	Other	5
	Specify:	

26 ⌊_⌋⌊_⌋

18. If requested by a professional to provide material assistance to one of his clients would you feel capable of doing this?

Yes	1
No	2

28 ⌊_⌋

19. If requested by a professional to provide befriending/support to one of his clients would you feel capable of doing this?

Yes	1
No	2

29 ⌊_⌋

20. If requested by a professional to provide advice and guidance to one of his clients would you feel capable of doing this?

Yes	1
No	2

30 ⌊_⌋

21. If requested by a professional to provide counselling to one of his clients would you feel capable of doing this?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2

31 ⌊_⌋

22. If a client requests help from you do you ask them if they have seen or are seeing a professional helper?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2
Sometimes	☐	3

33 ⌊_⌋

23. If a professional was involved and you wanted to contact them would you ask your client if this was O.K.

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3

34 ⌊_⌋

24. When you are asked by a professional for assistance with a client, do you expect him to continue overall responsibility?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3
Not asked	☐	4

36 ⌊_⌋

25. When you are asked by a professional for assistance, do you expect to keep him informed of progress?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3
Not asked	☐	4

37 ⌊_⌋

26. When you are asked by a professional for assistance do you expect to contact him only if there is a crisis?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3
Not asked	☐	4

38 ⌊_⌋

27. When you are asked by a professional for assistance do you expect him to provide some form of supervision?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3
Not asked	☐	4

39 ⌊⌋⌊⌋

28. Do you prefer to assist people who are not being helped by a professional?

Yes	☐	1
Sometimes	☐	2
No	☐	3

42 ⌊⌋

29. Do you think professionals understand nonprofessionals?

Yes	☐	1
Some do	☐	2
No	☐	3

43 ⌊⌋

30. Do you think professionals encourage and support nonprofessionals enough?

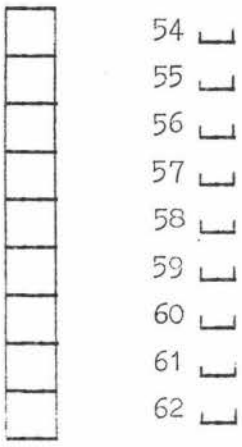
Yes	☐	
Some do	☐	
No	☐	

44 ⌊⌋

31. What are the advantages you have found of working with a professional?

☐ 45 ⌊⌋
☐ 46 ⌊⌋
☐ 47 ⌊⌋
☐ 48 ⌊⌋
☐ 49 ⌊⌋
☐ 50 ⌊⌋
☐ 51 ⌊⌋
☐ 52 ⌊⌋
☐ 53 ⌊⌋

32. What are the disadvantages you have found of working with a professional?



A P P E N D I X I V

"NONPROFESSIONAL INVOLVEMENT IN HELPING SERVICES IN PALMERSTON NORTH"

Survey of staff employed in professional helping services

1 ⌊⌋⌊⌋⌊⌋

1. Name of Employing Agency .....

☐ 1
☐ 2 4 ⌊⌋
☐ 3

2. Title of your position .....

☐ 1
☐ 2 5 ⌊⌋
☐ 3
☐ 4

3. Qualifications held .....

☐ 1
..... ☐ 2
..... ☐ 3 6 ⌊⌋
..... ☐ 4
..... ☐ 5

4. Maori
   European

☐ 1 7 ⌊⌋
☐ 2

5. Age

Under 18	.....	☐ 1
18 - 21	.....	☐ 2
22 - 30	.....	☐ 3
31 - 45	.....	☐ 4
46 - 60	.....	☐ 5
60 +	.....	☐ 6

8 ⌊⌋⌊⌋⌊⌋

6. Does your agency encourage the use of nonprofessionals?

Yes ☐ 1
No ☐ 2

11 ⌊⌋

7. Have you used nonprofessionals to assist you carry out your work?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2

12 ☐

8. When was the last time you asked a nonprofessional to help you with a client (made a referral)

(1) Within the past week	☐	1
(2) 1 - 4 weeks	☐	2
(3) 1 - 6 months	☐	3
(4) Over 6 months	☐	4
(5) Never	☐	5

13 ☐

9. Does the decision to seek nonprofessional help rest with you alone?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2

14 ☐

10. What do you think the typical nonprofessional can do best to assist you carry out your work?

(1) Provide material assistance (including transport)	☐	1
(2) Befriending/Support	☐	2
(3) Providing advice and guidance	☐	3
(4) Providing assistance with personal or interpersonal problems (counselling)	☐	4
(5) He can't do anything	☐	5

15 ☐☐

11. How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide material assistance?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

18 ☐

12. How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide befriending/give support?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

19 ☐

13. How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide advice and guidance?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

20 ⌊_⌋

14. How frequently do you ask a nonprofessional to provide assistance with personal and interpersonal problems/counselling?

(1) Frequently	☐	1
(2) Sometimes	☐	2
(3) Never	☐	3

21 ⌊_⌋

15. How would you evaluate the contribution a nonprofessional could make to the effectiveness of your agency?

(1) Very positive	☐	1
(2) Positive	☐	2
(3) Neutral	☐	3
(4) Negative	☐	4
(5) Very negative	☐	5

22 ⌊_⌋

16. How would you evaluate the contribution a nonprofessional could make to your effectiveness as a helper?

(1) Very positive	☐	1
(2) Positive	☐	2
(3) Neutral	☐	3
(4) Negative	☐	4
(5) Very negative	☐	5

23 ⌊_⌋⌊_⌋

17. What source are you most likely to seek nonprofessional assistance from?

(1) An agency	☐	1
(2) A person known to you within an agency	☐	2
(3) A personal contact	☐	3
(4) Other (specify)	☐	4
(5) Don't ask	☐	5

26 ⌊_⌋

18. When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to continue overall responsibility?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2
Don't ask	☐	3

27 ⌊_⌋

19. When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to be kept informed of progress?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2
Don't ask	☐	3

28 ⌊_⌋

20. When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to be only contacted if there is a crisis?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2
Don't ask	☐	3

29 ⌊_⌋

21. When you ask for nonprofessional assistance do you expect to provide some form of supervision?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2
Don't ask	☐	3

30 ⌊_⌋⌊_⌋

22. Have you used as a nonprofessional helper, someone whom you have known to have received profcssional assistance from your agency?

Yes	☐	1
No	☐	2

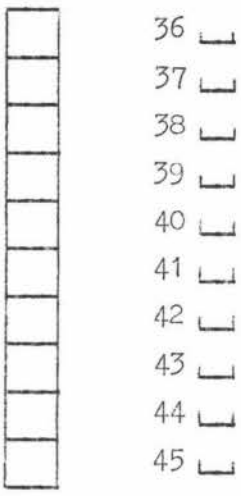
33 ⌊_⌋

23. Would you use as a nonprofessional helper someone who you knew had received professional assistance from your agency?

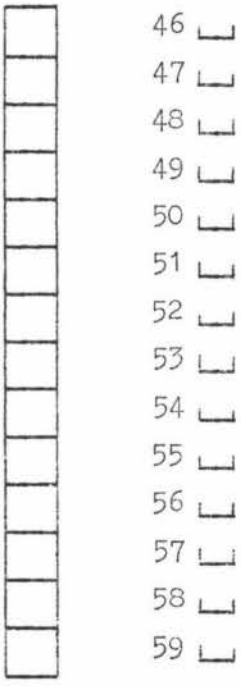
Yes	☐	1
Maybe	☐	2
No	☐	3

34 ⌊_⌋⌊_⌋

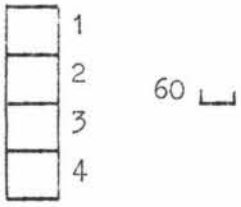
24. What are the advantages you have found of working with a nonprofessional?



25. What are the disadvantages you have found of working with a nonprofessional?



26. Are nonprofessionals more work than they are worth?



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